# Sino-US English Teaching

Volume 11, Number 5, May 2014

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Volume 11, Number 5, May 2014 (Serial Number 125)

# Contents

# Syntax Development in Language Education of Children Who Are Deaf or Hard-of-Hearing by Usage of Modern Technology

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The aim of the study was to determine the development of syntax in language development of children who are deaf or hard-of-hearing, who are taught to new dynamic linguistic features with the help of computers. The sample consisted of 70 children who are deaf or hard-of-hearing, aged 7-17 years. To assess language development were applied following variables: total number of words used, the total number of different words used, the correct and incorrect statements (sentences) of the respondents. We calculated the basic statistical parameters on which it was found that the experimental program computer teaching children who are deaf or hard-of-hearing gave better results in the development of syntax. Also, canonical discriminate analysis revealed a statistically significant difference in the applied variables between the control and experimental groups the level of statistical significance of $p = 0.000$. The results showed a significant improvement of the experimental group and that dynamic computer programming activities, which were challenged participants of the experimental group, contribute to a better linguistic competence of children who are deaf or hard-of-hearing.

*Keywords:* syntax, speech and language, vocabulary, speech perception, child who is deaf

## Introduction

In the children who are deaf, speech and language disorders can be rehabilitated. In this process, the most important is to find the applicable programs. Research in this area indicates great potential for successful linguistic education of these individuals with the use of appropriate technology, which is increasingly used at learning of speech and language in recent years. The goal of education is to teach every student in the best way.

In the educational setting, teaching and learning methods can be upgraded by new approaches embedding digital technology for the enhancement of students' learning (Toki & Pange, 2010).

The goals of education program can be achieved with the help of modern information technology. However, it remains an open question about the possibility of adapting education to the information needs of each student and his other personal characteristics.

Congenital or acquired hearing loss in infants and children has been linked with lifelong deficits in speech and language acquisition, poor academic performance, personal-social maladjustments, and emotional difficulties (Cunningham & Cox, 2003).

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Speech is often identified with the language and in the context precursor's language development. We can say that speech precedes language development, but at the hearing population in the deaf population is obviously not so, because of the fact that most people who are deaf fail to master speech and remain at a very low language development. Most likely it is a result of the psychological structure of children who are deaf as a special form of psychological development occurs without speech perception.

The hearing loss interferes with the child's linguistic development, impairs its insertion in the society and produces cognitive and emotional consequences in case he or she is not inserted in an early educational program that takes into account the deafness and its particularities. The delay in the language acquisition reduces social contacts occasions and may lead to cognitive deficits, which become source of frustration for the deaf children and their parents (Corvera, 2009, as cited in Carvalho & Cavalheiro, 2009).

Research during the past several generations in the United States and elsewhere has found that deaf children and adults have difficulty with numerous aspects of reading and writing in the language being taught. These range from the smallest units (phonemes and graphemes) to morphemes, syntax, vocabulary, and pragmatics (Moores, 2006).

In addition to developing the basics of language, it is important to consider the links between language development, literacy, and academic success. Because the majority of deaf children are born to hearing parents who do not know how to sign, many of these children do not have full access to language during the early years of life most critical to language acquisition (Marschark, 2001).

One of the greatest challenges facing educators of children who are deaf and hard of hearing is the provision of educational programs that develop age appropriate language skills (Paatsch, Blamey, Sarant, & Bow, 2006).

The children with residual hearing have advantage in language education by methods that are used today, however, for children who are deaf, these methods do not apply, you need to use a computer to access mobile applications that can allow children who are deaf insight into the dynamics of movement. In this way, a student who is deaf can easily get important information for language development.

The classic model of linguistic education of children who are deaf in some way represents the cybernetic model. Cybernetics is not primarily important content of the information sent, it is more important channel of transmission with the presence of a signal or symbol. Due to this fact the students who are deaf do not achieve good results in learning verbal language. To better understand the use of information access in linguistic education of a child who is deaf, it is necessary to understand the psychological structure of a child who is deaf, which is developed on the basis of the perception of motion. Affective connections between computers and children's influence on cognitive development in early childhood are logical. These include various types of reviews, abstraction, memory, etc.

Since the first published research to date the situation is slightly changed as a consequence of this situation is that most students were not capable of higher education due to poor language skills. This points to the fact that the course of action for at least a specialist in the direction of software solutions. The traditional linguistic elements in the educational procedure are carried out in a way to elect bad words and sentences that the child knows well and knows them to say and then moves on to new situations with new words. Many programs of early language education are usually limited to use only one method of working with children who are deaf. Language learning in children who are deaf is more complicated than is usually assumed. The particular

difficulty for successful linguistic education is the syntax. These practical difficulties can be alleviated new computer science education programs that have the ability to upgrade the syntactic dimension of words through dynamic and moving show-action.

Because of the rapid development of instructional, interactive technology, and signal-analyzing devices, computer-based speech training aids have become increasingly important instruments in the work with deaf students. Most of these computer-based resources (Arends et al., 1991; Bernstein, Goldstein, & Mahshie, 1988; Lippmann, 1982; Watson & Kewley-Port, 1989, as cited in Becker & Artelt, 1998) are feedback methods enabling external control over peripheral speech processes (like phonation, prosody, and articulation).

The use of application software in linguistic education directs students to come to the unveiling correct answers. In this way, it stimulates cognitive development. However, there are several outstanding issues with their use as usual, for example on the effectiveness of the adoption of new content, then the validity of their design, evaluation, etc.. Justification for the use of application software cannot come into question when dealing with a population deaf students, because of the advantage of specific capabilities of this approach in educating unlimited for processes of language learning. Selection of educational content is very important, especially those facilities that require a computer simulation of the analytical and synthetic approach for easy understanding of linguistic elements. In this way, it is possible to adjust the educational content of each individual student, what is closer, more interesting and easier. The advantage of this learning program is that the student who is deaf at any time can go back to those facilities in which he gained knowledge of the adoption of new content. In this mode of teaching enables easier transfer of learning through two-way communication and learning cannot be carried out strictly in school.

Prensky (2010, as cited in Toki & Pange) stated:

> Our students have changed radically. Today's students are no longer the people our educational system was designed to teach… They have spent their entire lives surrounded by and using computers, videogames, digital music players, video cams, cell phones, and all the other toys and tools of the digital age. (p. 4274)

According to Haug (2011),

> The use of new technologies for the instruction and testing of both deaf children and adults is very common today. Examples include web-based video lectures for deaf students in Slovenia (Debevc & Peljhan, 2004), a computer-based psychiatric diagnostic interview in ASL (Montoya et al., 2004), a computer-based test for deaf children and young adolescents in DGS (German Sign Language) (Mann, 2008), a web-based version of the Test of American Sign Language (see Haug, 2008a), and the development of a computer-based environment in ASL for delivering performance-based content from kindergarten through high school (Hooper, Rose & Miller, 2005; Miller, Hooper & Rose, 2005). The increasing use of new technologies provides a good opportunity to exploit the use of video to meet the modality-specific features of sign languages in testing. The availability of new technologies has also contributed to the design of the test interface for the adapted DGS test. (p. 46)

## Method

Dynamically created original language content is used for determining the success language development at children who are deaf. The study was conducted on a representative sample of 70 respondent's students, ages 7-17 years, whose average hearing loss was greater than 80 dB. The survey was conducted at centers for the education of students who are deaf. Students were tested by means test "graphic story". There were two

measurements for assessing language development syntax (initial measurement and final measurement). The test consists of four pictures in a row. Students described the events and situations in the pictures. Based on the description of these events and the situation were assessed by linguistic discourse syntax.

Respondents after initial testing randomly divided into two groups, experimental and control, by 35 students. The experimental group was stimulated dynamic, computer program for each subject to individual access and control group standard—static program daily for five educational treatments, of which one was prepared to learn about the program.

Static program contents are prepared on paper by professional educators with lots of illustrations and a number of possible questions and answers with which rehabilitation trainer performs linguistic training. Predicted didactic contents were prepared in black and white, which is the standard way of training that is applied in schools for children who are deaf (see Figure 1).
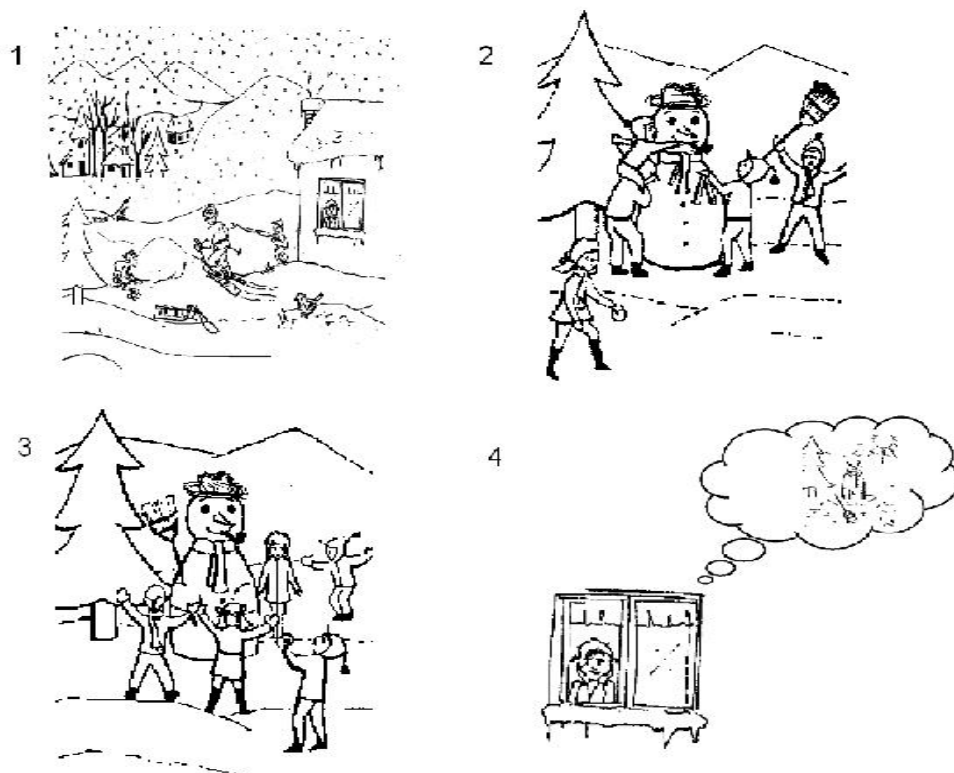


*Figure 1*. Static program to describe the "drawing story".

Dynamic program content has been prepared on the model of static, but the illustrations are screened through dynamic movement. The perception of motion is the basis of cognitive development of students who are deaf. This program clearly shows the actions in the drawings, the movement of subjects and possibilities of continuous repetition of actions that can be seen in the drawing. In addition to the dynamic situation that can be seen, the program includes an explanation of the actions the drawings as well as written language elements. In this way, children who are deaf explain the sequence of linguistic expressions. This program allows syntaxes perception structure of words, but also reduces the possibility of error in substituting letters in writing (see Figure 2).
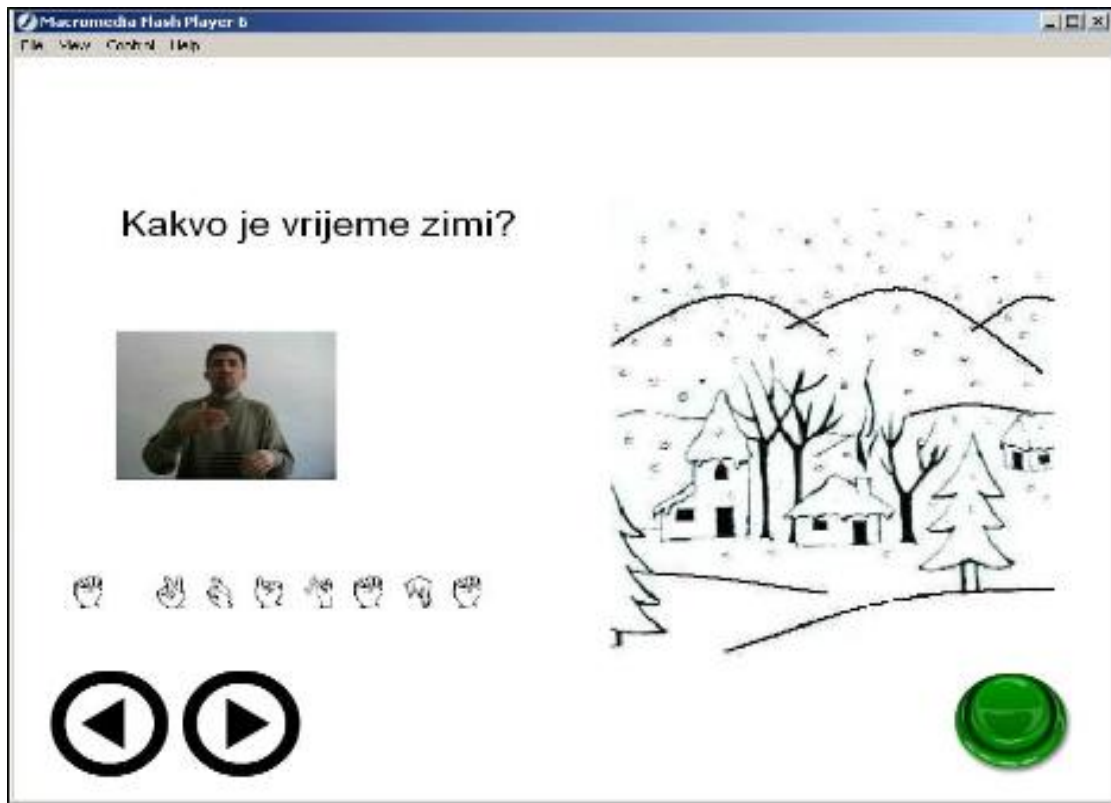
*Figure 2.* Computer dynamic program.

## Data Collection

The data of this study were analyzed using parametric statistics. The calculated frequencies and percentages of answers, the mean and standard deviation, and is providing insights into the statistical differences in achievement between samples of respondents. Analysis of variance and canonical discriminate analysis was used in initial and final measurements to determine the difference between control and experimental group results.

## Results

The researches results presented in Table 1 represent an analysis of the scope of the vocabulary of variables: total number of all the words and the total number of used different words. Analyzing dictionaries experimental and control groups in the initial measurement, we can see approximately the same volume of the used different words in relation to the total number of all the words in the language discourse. Since the used 695 words, experimental group used 490 different words and a control group of 560 words the used 405 different words in written tests. In the analysis of dictionaries experimental and control groups in the final measurement, we can see more progress in the experimental group scope words compared to the control group. The experimental group was used in the initial measurement of 695 words, in the final words of 1,320, which are 625 more words after stimulation dynamic modern amenities.

The control group was used in the initial measurement of 560 words, and the final 793 words, which are 233 more words after stimulation of standard amenities. The experimental group was three times achieve a better result in the total number of words used in relation to the control group. Also, the experimental group in the initial

measurement used 490 different words in the final 970 words, which are 480 more words after stimulation dynamic modern amenities. The control group in at the initial measurement used 405 different words in the final 583 words, which are 178 more words after stimulation of standard amenities (see Table 1).

Table 1

*The Scope of Dictionaries Used Types of Words in the Initial and Final Measurements*

| Groups | The initial measurement | | The final measurement | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | The total number of words used | The total number of different words used | The total number of words used | The total number of different words used |
| The experimental group | 695 | 490 | 1,320 | 970 |
| The control group | 560 | 405 | 793 | 583 |

In any language, there are certain rules that are specific only to that language, and one of them is the syntax. The syntax is a way of linking words in sentences. Every child in the course of development has a special way to create sentences.

According to Friedmann and Szterman (2006), syntactic deficits in children with hearing loss who are orally trained have been reported over the past 40 years. They cited:

> The first studies used analysis of spontaneous speech to assess the syntactic abilities of English-speaking school-age children with hearing loss (Brannon, 1966, 1968). Later, research methods changed and included structured tasks such as repetition, sentence completion, and grammaticality judgment that were aimed at assessing syntactic abilities in production and comprehension (Pressnell, 1973; Sarachan-Deily & Love, 1974). These studies indicated that the syntactic abilities of children with hearing loss are different than those of hearing children. In the realm of speech production, they showed that children with hearing loss produce ungrammatical sentences and have difficulties in the acquisition of syntactic structures (Brannon, 1966; Geers & Moog, 1978; Pressnell, 1973; Tur-Kaspa & Dromi, 2001). In comprehension, the performance of children with hearing loss was reported to be significantly poorer than that of hearing children (Brannon, 1966; Pressnell, 1973; Sarachan-Deily & Love, 1974; Tur-Kaspa & Dromi, 2001). (Friedmann & Szterman, 2006, p. 56)

Analysis of the statements in this study was found to be correct or incorrect sentence structure. Evaluation was carried out on the basis of choosing words, shapes, morphological suffixes, word order, and punctuation, which resulted in the identification of accomplishments in the syntax structure of the language.

The experimental group in the initial measurement had a total of 158 statements from 45 testimony properly used (28.48%) and 113 improperly used statements (71.52%). The control group had a total of 135 statements, 26 correctly used (19.26%) and 109 improperly used statements (80.74%). We can see the differences between both groups in syntax structure. Better achievement of the total number of statements is in favor of the experimental group, as well as more number of regular expressions. Under the influence of treatment, the experimental group in the final measurements had a total of 332 statements, properly used with 176 (53.01%) and 156 improperly used statements (46.99%), while the control group had a total of 197 statements, with 53 correctly used (26.90%) and 144 improperly used statements (73.10%). In structure syntax of the words of the experimental group in the initial and final measurements, we can see several differences in the total number of achievements testimony under the influence of dynamic programming content in the treatment, and also observe an increase in the number of regular expressions and a significant reduction of the total irregular statements used statements (see Table 2).

Table 2

*Syntax of the Words—Initial and Final Measurement*

| Groups | The initial measurement | | | The final measurement | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Correct statements | Incorrect statements | Total | Correct statements | Incorrect statements |
| The experimental group | 158 | 45 (28.48%) | 113 (71.52%) | 332 | 176 (53.01%) | 156 (46.99%) |
| The control group | 135 | 26 (19.26%) | 109 (80.74%) | 197 | 53 (26.90%) | 144 (73.10%) |

The control group had small progress in total number of used words after the treatment while the experimental group had much more success.

Assessment of differences between the groups served to estimate the difference in the success of the two treatments in patients and the development of language competence of students who are deaf.

The results in Table 3 show that the differences between groups. The statistical significance between groups, indicating that the respondents in the sample who underwent an experimental program were better at re-testing after used modern programs. They showed significantly better performance in language expression. They had twice adopted new concepts and fewer defects in the organization language knowledge demonstrated by analysis of variance in the area of the examined variables.

After examining the results, we can conclude that changes have occurred under the influence of treatment in the final measure, because the subjects of the experimental group, the dynamic program content learned and used more words and phrases in the language of discourse. Most have used a noun, verb, and then finally more regular expressions (see Table 3).

Table 3

*The Statistical Significance of the Variability in the Final Measurement—After of Language Education*

| Variables | Groups | AS | SD | $f$ | $p$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The total number of words used | The experimental group | 40.00 | 14.46 | 21.34 | 0.000 |
| | The control group | 24.03 | 13.59 | | |
| The total number of different words used | The experimental group | 29.39 | 10.98 | 20.20 | 0.000 |
| | The control group | 17.66 | 10.19 | | |
| Correct statements | The experimental group | 5.33 | 2.74 | 44.56 | 0.000 |
| | The control group | 1.60 | 1.65 | | |
| Incorrect statements | The experimental group | 4.72 | 2.15 | 0.65 | 0.432 |
| | The control group | 4.36 | 1.45 | | |

In order to verify hypotheses, that there is a statistically significant difference in language development between the experimental and control groups of students who are deaf who are educated and dynamic standard programs, the method of discriminate analysis. Discrimination group was made manifest in the area. Statistical significance of differences between samples of respondents in this study was achieved at the level of significance of 00:00. Lambda value is 0.65, and H2 test 51.58. Respondents are significantly different on the separate discriminate function.

The results obtained in this study, in the context of the application of computer technology, can be compared with the results of Massaro and Light (2004) who found an improvement in articulation when they used a computer-animated talking head (Baldi) as a language tutor for speech perception and production for children

with hearing loss. Baldi can speak slowly; illustrate articulation by making the skin transparent to reveal the tongue, teeth, and palate; and show supplementary articulator features, such as vibration of the neck to show voicing and turbulent airflow to show frication.

Deficits in vocabulary have a negative impact on literacy and interpersonal interaction for deaf children. As part of an evaluation, an outcomes assessment was conducted to determine the effectiveness of a computer-based vocabulary tutor in an elementary auditory/oral program. Participants were 19 children, 16 profoundly deaf and three hearing. The vocabulary tutor displays line drawings or photographs of the words to be learned while a computer-generated avatar of a "talking head" provides synthesized audiovisual speech driven from text. The computer system also generates printed words corresponding to the imaged items. Through audiovisual reception, children memorized up to 218 new words for everyday household items. After four weeks, their receptive vocabulary was tested, using the avatar to speak the name of each item. Most of the students retained more than half of the new words. The freely available vocabulary tutor, whose characteristics can be tailored to individual need, can provide a language-intensive, independent learning environment to supplement classroom teaching in content areas (Barker, 2003).

## Policy Recommendations

Studies have focused on the use of dynamic computer programs, combining a traditional approach to language learning in children who are deaf and modern technology through the use of educational software, with the aim of taking the opportunity to improve language skills. Computer language programs that best express their creativity and skills, enabling these persons to acquire skills needed for everyday life and enter a world of information.

## Conclusions

After a statistically significant difference, an analysis of canonical function coefficients to determine the significance of variables that discriminate against groups such factors and the development of language knowledge under the influence of experimental treatments. Canonical discriminate function coefficients indicate the differences in achievements for language development between the control and experimental groups, which clearly show the progress of experimental groups on variables that, are important for language development and language competence. Teaching students a dynamic, modern programs inverse method of teaching and we can call it "language to speech" but this research shows that the linguistic competence of children who are deaf significantly increased in comparison to previous approaches. The emphasis is placed on the programming language elements in a dynamic form, not a speech as the dominant process. Dynamics program provides enhanced learning which excludes boredom, because children who are deaf have shown great interest, both for situational language of the moving image, as well as reading and writing. Lexicon and syntax as components of language are continuous, but a systematic schedule of learning, so that the child creates the habit of their expression, and their checks performed through simple operations on the questions and answers alternative communication with the program. We can conclude that children who are deaf very early to be stimulated by modern techniques in language teaching.

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# A Comparative Analysis of Teacher Talk Between Advanced and Fundamental English Major Courses[*]

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The importance of teacher talk in EFL (English as a foreign language) class has aroused much attention in China since the late 1990s. On a basis of classroom discourse analysis, this paper has observed 14 courses with 21 hours in total from advanced and fundamental grades in an English department. The classroom observation has been transcribed to analyze the features of teacher talk in various English courses in terms of five dimensions—discourse quantity, questioning types, feedback manners, interactional modification features, and conversation chains. It is found that on average there is significant difference in those five dimensions between fundamental and advanced courses. In terms of discourse quantity, the teacher talk has occupied more than 80% of the total talk amount and the total teacher talk in advanced courses is more than that in fundamental ones; the number of display questions is much more than that of referential questions; evaluative feedbacks are more than discursive ones; all of the teachers prefer to employ confirmation checks to modify students' answer, and half of the conversational chains are IRF (Initial-Response-Follow-up) structure while another half are full of complicated chains. The paper then provides some suggestions and implications for EFL teaching in the light of these findings.

*Keywords:* teacher talk, advanced English courses, fundamental English courses

## Introduction

TT (Teacher talk) is very important for both classroom teaching organization and students' language learning in the process of foreign language learning and second language acquisition, because TT is an instrument of implementing teaching plan and also the main source of language input for second language or foreign language learners in the language classroom (Nunan, 1991, p. 189). Therefore, the amount and quality of TT in language classrooms may influence and even determine the effects of classroom teaching.

### Definitions of TT

Various scholars (Long & Sato 1983; Brock, 1986; Ellis, 1994; Thornbury, 1996; Cullen,1998) have made their definitions on TT based on different concerns. For example, Ellis (1994, p. 342) stressed TT's facilitating function of "adjustment" in language communication. Brock (1986, p. 477) described TT's artificial features, such as shorter sentence, reduced grammar and slow speech tempo. Cullen (1998) focused on the register teachers

use in class with learners, such as "error treatment, simplification, talking time distribution, etc." (p. 320). Based on the definitions above, TT in this paper refers to the language used by teachers to manage class, illustrate language points, organize class activity, and evaluate learners' performance.

**Previous Studies on TT**

Since the 1970s, many foreign scholars (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Shapiro, 1979; Widdowson, 1983; Pica & Long, 1986; Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1990; Allwright & Bailey, 1991, etc.) have made empirical studies on TT from two main perspectives—cognition orientation and sociological orientation. Those scholars with the cognition orientation insisted that language learning is the psychological process of students' acquisition of language system (pronunciation, lexicon, syntax, etc.). This type of research is mainly quantitative study. For example, Brock (1986) compared the influence of different questioning types on students' language output. Ellis (1994) analyzed the different classroom interactions on students' acquisition of word meaning. As for sociological orientation, scholars believed that language development is a naturally occurred social construction, learning is situated in social communication, and individuals cannot separate themselves from social context. This kind of research is based on interaction hypothesis and it tends to employ qualitative analysis. Such research started to develop in the late 1990s. For example, Anton (1999) pointed out how to make progress in one's zone of proximal development through language negotiations. Other studies analyzed how to construct one's role and identity through turning taking (Markee, 2004; Mori, 2004, etc.).

In China, the research on TT started to develop since the late 1990s (ZHAO, 1998; X. ZHOU & Y. ZHOU, 2002; Q. HU, 2004, etc.). Many scholars (X. ZHOU & Y. ZHOU, 2002; X. HU, 2003; J. ZHOU, 2006; LI, 2007) agreed that ZHAO Xiao-hong's empirical research on TT has become a starting point for TT study in China (1998). This paper made a pilot study on the 13 national key journals from 1998 to 2010 and it was found that the general features of present situation of doing TT in China can be described from the following three aspects—research content, research subjects, and research methodology. As for research content, Chinese scholars like Q. HU (2004), LI (2007), X. ZHOU and MAO (2006), etc., seem to be interested in analyzing "questioning types", "conversation chains", and "mother-tongue shifts", and there are also scholars (WANG, 2007) who focused on "metalanguage", "negotiation", "recast" (one of the modification features), etc.. For research subjects, college English course (ZHAO, 1998; X. ZHOU & Y. ZHOU, 2002; Q. HU, 2004, etc.) is most frequently investigated and few focus has been made on English major courses (LIU & JIANG, 2004). On research methodology, most of Chinese scholars seem to be interested in theoretical discussion on certain features or global features of TT (X. ZHOU & Y. ZHOU, 2002; Q. HU, 2004, etc. ). However, only one-fourth scholars have employed empirical studies (Q. HU, 2004). Therefore, more empirical studies are to be carried out in terms of research methodology, and more attention should be given on English major courses in which TT also plays a very important role for students' language acquisition.

In this paper, an empirical study has been employed to investigate the features of TT used in the English department by adopting the framework of many Chinese scholars' research on TT to describe various aspects of TT. In order to make a better understanding of specific features of TT, those English major courses have been divided into two main groups—advanced level and fundamental level. By advanced level, it refers to the courses taught for third and fourth undergraduates, whereas fundamental courses are for first and second undergraduates.

The paper then argues that TT has different features in various courses, and what is more, those courses from advanced level are different from those in fundamental grade in terms of discourse quantity, questioning types, feedback manners, modification features, and conversational chains because of the knowledge requirement from each course and teacher belief.

Based on the previous studies, those five aspects of TT features can be briefly explained as follows:

(1) Discourse quantity refers to both TTT (teacher talk time), STT (student talk time) for the purpose of classroom interaction.

(2) Questioning types can be divided into two groups—display question which refers to the question whose answer has been known by the teacher beforehand, and referential question which refers to the question whose answer is not known by the teacher.

(3) Interaction medication features can be divided into three types—Comp C (comprehension checks) which means that speaker asks whether listener understands his or her words by saying like "Understand?", Conf C (confirmation checks) for speaker to check whether he/she has correctly understood what he/she has heard by saying "Is that what you mean?", and CR (clarification requests) means that speaker asks interlocutor to offer more information to help speaker understand interlocutor easily, by saying "You mean?" or "What?".

(4) Feedback manners can be divided into EF (evaluative feedback) and DF (discursive feedback). In EF, the teacher points out whether the learner's answer is correct and such feedback only focuses on language forms while in DF, the teacher concerns on discourse rather than language form, and thus it is similar to the feedback in the natural discourse communication.

(5) Conversation chains also refer to IRF chains. IRF is Initial-Response-Follow-up model developed by Birmingham School as indicated below:

Initiating: "Can anyone have a shot, a guess at that one?" (elicit)

Responding: "Cleopatra." (reply)

Follow-up: "Cleopatra." (acceptance)

"Good girl." (evaluation)

"She was the most famous queen, wasn't she?" (comment)

## Research Methodology

Based on what has been discussed above—that few Chinese scholars have ever carried out empirical studies on TT in China and few attention has been given on English major courses, the paper aims to adopt most frequently used research method—natural classroom observation plus interview as an assistance to analyze the features of TT and better understand classroom activities. To be more specific, the paper aims to answer the following two questions: research question (1): What are the features of TT in different English courses?; and research question (2): Are there any significant different features of TT between advanced and fundamental courses?.

### Participants

Fourteen teachers teaching different English courses have been chosen from an English department and they have been divided into two groups, seven teachers for teaching advanced courses and another seven for fundamental teaching. Those 14 teachers include two native speakers for teaching speaking and writing, and the rest of them are all Chinese teachers who have taught English in university for at least 10 years. It is believed that

those experienced teachers' talk in classroom can represent the common features of TT for English majors. The English courses chosen have covered various subjects ranging from listening, speaking, reading, writing, etc. to fundamental group to translation, stylistics, English literature, etc., for advanced level. Thus, an objective comparison is expected to be made based on the variety of courses selected and the amount of teaching hours (21 hours in total) observed. Students are all from four different grades of the English department, with around 30 in each class and most of them are females.

**Instruments**

Among all of the empirical studies on TT, all of the Chinese scholars have adopted natural classroom observation and audio-recordings to construct the features of TT. This paper has observed 14 classrooms, each class takes 90 minutes with 21 hours in total, and all of the transcriptions are based on those 14 observations. Then an open-ended interview has been designed to collect responses from teachers and students about their preferences to certain features of TT.

**Data Collection**

First of all, all of the class observation will be transcribed and then, a comparative analysis from advanced English courses and fundamental courses has been made based on the five dimensions of TT—discourse quantity, questioning types, feedback manners, interaction modification features, and conversational chains (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

## Results and Discussion

Five dimensions of TT will be analyzed in the following tables respectively, and in the meantime, two groups of English courses have been marked for each dimension in a table in correspondence to answer our research questions: What are the features of TT in two different groups and whether there is significant difference between advanced and fundamental English courses.

**Discourse Quantity**

Different scholars have different opinions on the amount of TT in language classroom. Wong (as cited in X. HU, 2003) has raised his doubt on the idea that TT can stop students' acquisition and he disagreed to use the amount of TT to judge whether a class was a success or a failure. However, Krashen (1985) and many other scholars (like Allright, 1984) insisted that TT could influence and decide learners' language performance. Krashen's input hypothesis has considered TT in class as the basic language input for learners, and Long and Sato's (1983) interaction hypothesis has confirmed that comprehensible language input should be based on "interaction". In China, most scholars (ZHAO, 1998; X. ZHOU & Y. ZHOU, 2002, etc.) seem to deny the "teacher-centered" class in which TT has constituted large amount of talk time. However, they seem to ignore the fact that English courses are various from each other in terms of their knowledge focus and nature of the discipline. For example, in oral English class, it is undoubtedly acceptable that student talk should be highly recommended, while in other courses which aim to impart academic knowledge like "stylistics", "literature", "translation", etc.. TT is supposed to take large part in reaching a specific teaching objective. Therefore, it is of necessity to investigate the discourse quantity in different English courses before we reach to the conclusion—how much a teacher and students should talk in class.

Table 1

*The Description of the Discourse Quantity of Fundamental English Courses*

| Name of courses | TDQ (min.) | Discourse quantity | | | | | |
| | | Total talk time | | TTT | | STT | |
| | | t (min.) | (%) | t (min.) | % | t (min.) | (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Speaking | 90 | 83 | 92.2 | 53 | 63.9 | 30 | 36.1 |
| Reading | 90 | 86 | 95.6 | 66 | 76.7 | 20 | 23.3 |
| Grammar | 90 | 87 | 96.7 | 69 | 79.3 | 18 | 20.7 |
| IE 1 | 90 | 88 | 97.8 | 84 | 95.5 | 4 | 4.5 |
| IE 3 | 90 | 88 | 97.8 | 81 | 92 | 7 | 8 |
| Listening | 90 | 46 | 51.1 | 31 | 67.4 | 15 | 32.6 |
| BER | 90 | 88 | 97.8 | 63 | 71.6 | 25 | 28.4 |
| Average | 90 | 80.9 | 89.9 | 63.9 | 78.1 | 17 | 21.9 |

*Notes.* In this table, TDQ = total discourse time; min = minutes; IE 1 = intensive English course 1; IE 3 = intensive English course 3; BER = business English reading.

Table 2

*The Description of the Discourse Quantity of Advanced English Courses*

| Name of courses | TDQ (min.) | Discourse quantity | | | | | |
| | | Total talk time | | TTT | | STT | |
| | | t (min.) | (%) | t (min.) | (%) | t (min.) | (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AW | 90 | 88 | 97.8 | 78 | 88.6 | 10 | 11.4 |
| BL | 90 | 84 | 93.3 | 79 | 94 | 5 | 6 |
| EC | 90 | 86 | 95.6 | 85 | 98.8 | 3 | 3.5 |
| Stylistics | 90 | 89 | 98.9 | 88.5 | 99.4 | 0.5 | 1 |
| Translation | 90 | 84 | 93.3 | 74 | 88.1 | 10 | 11.9 |
| AIE | 90 | 88 | 97.8 | 85 | 96.6 | 3 | 3.4 |
| IC | 90 | 88 | 97.8 | 78 | 88.6 | 10 | 11.4 |
| Average | 90 | 86.7 | 96.4 | 81.1 | 93.5 | 5.9 | 6.8 |

*Notes.* In this table, AW = advanced writing; BL = British literature; EC = English culture; AIE = advanced intensive English; IC = interpersonal communication; TDQ = total discourse time; min = minutes.

From Tables 1-2, an obvious conclusion can be drawn: The average amount of TTT is much lower in the fundamental courses than that of advanced courses. That is to say, freshmen and sophomore have talked more than juniors and seniors.

In Table 1, students from speaking and listening class have talked most (with 36.1% and 32.6% respectively) among the seven fundamental courses. As it has been witnessed from all of the class arrangement, in speaking class, the teacher asked all of students to interact in class by delivering various kinds of questions and offering different feedbacks to encourage students to speak more, and in listening class, the teacher did not talk more, but only 46 out of 90 minutes used by both students and the teacher, and almost half of them has been spent on listening to materials or copying down questions from the Internet. As for the two highest amount of teachers talk, they can be found in IE 1 and IE 3 in which teachers have talked most with 95.5% and 92% respectively, mainly because those two teachers helped students analyze reading passages in detail and their talk amount has composed large part of class.

In Table 2, the amount of teachers talk has consisted of around 90% for all of the advanced English courses with the highest "stylistics" course (99.4%) and the lowest "translation" course (88.1%). In the interview for teachers about discourse quantity, most of the teachers from advanced grades believed that it is not possible to provide many interactions between students and teachers due to the limited teaching hours required by the ministry. However, the study also indicated that in some classes like "translation", teachers have encouraged many students to answer questions and some students instead of teachers were also invited to offer the feedback, and in the translation class, the whole class seemed also under the teacher's control in terms of his academic teaching objective. Therefore, it is believed that less total TT should be recommended in advanced grades in order to encourage more students to interact in class just like what Allright (1984) has pointed out.

**Questioning Types**

Many foreign scholars like Long and Sato (1983), Brock (1986), and Nunan (1987), etc., have studied the division of questioning and they agreed with the division of "display question" and "referential question". Display question refers to the one whose answer has been known by the questioner beforehand while referential question's answer is not known by the questioner. Brock and Nunan have made empirical studies on those two types of questioning and they found that referential question is close to natural language and can encourage students to answer more in a complex structure. Chinese scholars (X. ZHOU & Y. ZHOU, 2002; Q. HU, 2004, etc.) also seem to have "tacit agreement" on this conclusion. However, the paper assumes that display question is also necessary in supervising class movement and understanding students' acquisition of certain teaching aim. What indicated below is the actual distribution of two types of questioning in various English courses.

In both Table 3 and Table 4, on average, more than 80% of questions except in "speaking" class are display questions rather than referential ones. The total number of questions raised in the fundamental courses is more than those in advanced courses with 44.3 questions and 12.3 questions respectively.

Table 3

*The Description of Questioning Types of Fundamental English Courses*

| Name of courses | Total numbers | Questioning types | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Referential questions | | Display questions | |
| | | Numbers | (%) | Numbers | (%) |
| Speaking | 96 | 92 | 95.8 | 4 | 4.2 |
| Reading | 47 | 3 | 6.4 | 44 | 93.6 |
| Grammar | 40 | 0 | 0 | 40 | 100 |
| IE 1 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 100 |
| IE 3 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 100 |
| Listening | 76 | 0 | 0 | 76 | 100 |
| BER | 32 | 4 | 12.5 | 28 | 87.5 |
| Average | 44.3 | 14.1 | 16.4 | 30.1 | 83.6 |

*Notes.* In this table, IE 1 = intensive English course 1; IE 3 = intensive English course 3; BER = business English reading.

Table 4

*The Description of Questioning Types of Advanced English Courses*

| Name of courses | Questioning types | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Total numbers | Referential questions | | Display questions | |
| | | Numbers | (%) | Numbers | (%) |
| AW | 32 | 2 | 6.3 | 30 | 93.8 |
| BL | 10 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 100 |
| EC | 11 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 100 |
| Stylistics | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 100 |
| Translation | 26 | 1 | 3.8 | 25 | 96.2 |
| AIE | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 100 |
| IC | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 100 |
| Average | 12.3 | 0.4 | 1.44 | 11.7 | 98.6 |

*Notes.* In this table, AW = advanced writing; BL = British literature; EC = English culture; AIE = advanced intensive English; IC = interpersonal communication.

In Table 3, only one class has raised the large majority of referential question and in this speaking class, it is observed that the teacher has questioned all of the students many times for each of them within 90 minutes, and lots of questions are about "how are you", "what do you think of", and in the interview, the teacher answered that his purpose of teaching this class was to encourage as many students as possible to participate in class, and it is also found that the textbook used in class is easy to understand and lots of topics are quite popular among college students like "job-hunting issues", "being single or married", etc.. Therefore, it is easy for a teacher to handle the class by using referential questions. However, in the rest of six courses, few teachers have delivered such questions (only "reading" and "business writing" class), and most of them have never had any of those questions.

The similar situation can be also found in Table 4 in which only two teachers (from "writing" and "translation" courses) asked referential questions, and the majority of them only focused on display questions. Compared with Table 3, those two types of questions are much less in Table 4, and the interviews with the teachers also prove that there is not much time left concerned with their teaching aim in class. It is true that in those courses whose aims are to impart academic knowledge to students rather than training their "oral language", but it is definitely unacceptable not to raise a single question within 90 minutes of class as some students have indicated in the interview that they hope that their teachers may question them so that they may be more "autonomous" to learn more and they all think that questioning is a good way to supervise their learning process.

**Interactional Modification Features**

Long and Sato (1983) put that when native speakers communicated with SL (Second Language) learners or non-native speakers with high level language proficiency talked with SL learners, usually they used interactional modification to deal with the communicative difficulties. These three most commonly used manners are "Comp C", "Conf C", and "CR". Besides, Ellis (1990, p. 128) believed that while people often use Conf C and CR to overcome the communicative difficulties in natural context, in the teacher-centered language classrooms teachers use more Comp C to manipulate the classroom more easily instead of Conf C and CR. What followed is the allocation of various manners from two different groups of English courses.

Table 5

*The Description of Interactional Modification Features of Fundamental English Courses*

| Name of courses | Total numbers | Interactional modification features | | | | | |
| | | Comp C | | Conf C | | CR | |
| | | Number | (%) | Number | (%) | Number | (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Speaking | 19 | 0 | 0 | 17 | 89.5 | 2 | 10.5 |
| Reading | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Grammar | 14 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 57.1 | 6 | 42.9 |
| IE 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| IE 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Listening | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 100 |
| BER | 14 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 78.6 | 3 | 21.4 |
| Average | 8.7 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 75 | 2.7 | 25 |

*Notes.* In this table, IE 1 = intensive English course 1; IE 3 = intensive English course 3; BER = business English reading.

Table 6

*The Description of Interactional Modification Features of Advanced English Courses*

| Name of courses | Total numbers | Interactional modification features | | | | | |
| | | Comp C | | Conf C | | CR | |
| | | Number | (%) | Number | (%) | Number | (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AW | 15 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 80 | 3 | 20 |
| BL | 4 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| EC | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Stylistics | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Translation | 11 | 1 | 9 | 9 | 81.8 | 1 | 9 |
| AIE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| IC | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Average | 4.6 | 0.14 | 1.3 | 3.9 | 66 | 0.6 | 4.1 |

*Notes.* In this table, AW = advanced writing; BL = British literature; EC = English culture; AIE = advanced intensive English; IC = interpersonal communication.

In Table 5, the total number of modification manners (with 8.7) is much more than that of Table 6 (with 4.6 on average). None of teachers have used Comp C in the fundamental grades and almost all of the teachers except one in the translation class who has used this manner in Table 6. Two groups of teachers tend to be in favor of using Conf C (with 75% in fundamental course and 66% in advanced ones) and few of them like to use CR. This result is quite different from that of Long and Sato (1983) and Ellis (1990) as what has been mentioned above, but this result is similar to many Chinese scholars' reports (X. ZHOU & Y. ZHOU, 2002; XIAN & SUN, 2007, etc.) and those scholars have analyzed the reason why in China Conf C are popular among teachers and students and they have found that such kind of modification manner can help students to win their face and also help the rest of the class to receive the correct language input in time.

**Feedback Manners**

Teacher's feedback is an indispensable part in classroom interaction. Cullen (2002) has divided feedback into two parts—EF and DF. Evaluative feedback means that teacher points out whether the learner's answer is correct and usually such feedback seldom occurs in a natural context and it only stresses on language forms while DF only focus on discourse rather than language form itself, and thus it is similar to the feedback in the natural

communication. In what followed, it aims to investigate what types of feedback has been used most frequently and related reasons will be stated as well.

Table 7

*The Description of Feedback Manners of Fundamental English Courses*

| Name of courses | Total numbers | Feedback manners | | | |
| | | Evaluative feedbacks | | Discursive feedbacks | |
| | | Numbers | (%) | Numbers | (%) |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Speaking | 80 | 32 | 40 | 48 | 60 |
| Reading | 44 | 42 | 95.5 | 2 | 4.5 |
| Grammar | 30 | 10 | 33.3 | 20 | 66.7 |
| IE 1 | 11 | 9 | 81.8 | 2 | 18.2 |
| IE 3 | 9 | 6 | 66.7 | 3 | 33.3 |
| Listening | 69 | 69 | .00 | 0 | 0 |
| BER | 31 | 27 | 87.1 | 4 | 12.9 |
| Average | 39.1 | 27.9 | 71.1 | 11.3 | 27.9 |

*Notes.* In this table, IE 1 = intensive English course 1; IE 3 = intensive English course 3; BER = business English reading.

Table 8

*The Description of Feedback Manners of Advanced English Courses*

| Name of courses | Total numbers | Feedback manners | | | |
| | | Evaluative feedbacks | | Discursive feedbacks | |
| | | Numbers | (%) | Numbers | (%) |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| AW | 30 | 26 | 83.9 | 5 | 16.1 |
| BL | 10 | 9 | 90 | 1 | 10 |
| EC | 11 | 8 | 72.7 | 3 | 27.3 |
| Stylistics | 1 | 1 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Translation | 22 | 11 | 50 | 11 | 50 |
| AIE | 3 | 3 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| IC | 3 | 3 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Average | 11.6 | 8.7 | 85.2 | 2.9 | 14.8 |

*Note.* In this table, AW = advanced writing; BL = British literature; EC = English culture; AIE = advanced intensive English; IC = interpersonal communication.

Tables 7-8 show more EFs than discursive ones with 72.1% in fundamental courses and 85.2% in advanced courses. In terms of total number of feedbacks used, teachers in fundamental groups delivered more feedbacks than those in advanced groups. In these two tables, only two teachers from speaking and grammar courses have used more DFs than EFs. Based on the author's classroom observation, it is found that in speaking class, the teacher has only corrected students' pronunciation mistakes if students have shown such need, and most of time, the teacher only wanted students to speak more and mistakes were a second concern as indicated in the interview. In grammar class, most of questions delivered by the teacher were about translation exercises based on certain grammar points and the teacher helped the student to figure out the answer by giving some hints or clues. What is interesting in grammar class is that the teacher is supposed to focus on students' language form, that is, all of the feedbacks should be evaluative ones, but in this class, in order to ask students

to find the answers themselves, during the process, the teacher has used many more DFs than evaluative ones to guide students to figure out the answers.

As for the favored EFs, the study indicates that most teachers liked to correct students' pronunciation mistakes especially in fundamental classes. In advanced courses, teachers like to deliver the positive feedback by simply stating "Good", or "Very good", or "OK", and this kind of simple positive feedback is denied by many scholars like Ellis (1990, p. 104). Based on the interview with students, it is clear that students hope their teachers offer them positive feedbacks with specific comments. Therefore, it is quite necessary for any English teachers either from fundamental grades or from advanced ones to use as many positive feedbacks as possible by offering specific comments on that. And what is more, more DFs are to be provided in class for students to modify or polish their language mistakes in order to acquire language (Van lier, 1988; Brophy, 1981; Nunan, 1991).

**Conversational Chains (IRF Model)**

A pioneering and influential study in classroom discourse interaction has been carried out at the University of Birmingham by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Their proposed "IRF" has been highly acknowledged among scholars. McCarthy (1991, p. 22) stated that this model was very useful for analyzing patterns of interaction where talk was relatively tightly structured", and Chaudron (1988, p. 44) mentioned that this model has contributed to a growth in awareness of the internal formal structure and functional purpose of the verbal classroom interaction. However, some other scholars (Thornbury, 1996; Cullen, 1998) criticized that under such a model, feedback seems to the result of communication and that is to say, students are passive receivers from teachers and for the long term, it will lead to poor language output. Both Thornbury and Cullen considered this model as non-communicative feature. Therefore, in the following tables, the study has divided the conversational chains into two parts. The first part is based on IRF model in which the teacher starts with the question, followed by student's answer and then teacher's feedback. Another part is more complicated structure of IRF, and some of them can be "teacher-student-teacher-student-teacher", or teacher-stduent1-teacher-student2", or "student-teacher", etc.

In Tables 9-10, it is clear that the number of TST (which is also IRF) is similar to that of complicated TST. Namely, all of the English teachers have adopted different conversational chains in class. Comparatively speaking, the total number of chains is many more in fundamental courses with 31.9 than that of advanced courses with 10.7. What is more, in some course, students rather than teachers have raised the questions first, like in intensive English 3, and in translation class, the teacher required the students to have peer evaluation between each other with the chains of "TS1S2S3T", and in the interview, it is also observed that every student has finished their translation exercises carefully and even though some of them are afraid of being questioned, they are all willing to participate in class with full attention and find they have benefited from peer feedback and teacher's feedback. As for the reason to choose TST chain, the interview has indicated that those teachers would like to control the class movement and supervise students' learning progress. Therefore, it is believed that in China, we still need TST model and more complicated chains are also required for the sake of students' interaction in class.

Table 9

*The Description of Conversational Chains of Fundamental English Courses*

| Name of courses | Total IRF numbers | IRF | | | |
| | | TST | | More complicated TST | |
| | | Number | (%) | Number | (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Speaking | 80 | 42 | 52.5 | 38 | 47.5 |
| Reading | 29 | 12 | 41.4 | 17 | 58.6 |
| Grammar | 42 | 22 | 52.4 | 20 | 47.6 |
| IE 1 | 6 | 4 | 66.7 | 2 | 33.3 |
| IE 3 | 12 | 4 | 33.3 | 8 | 66.7 |
| Listening | 22 | 15 | 68.2 | 7 | 31.8 |
| BER | 32 | 28 | 87.5 | 4 | 12.5 |
| Average | 31.9 | 18.1 | 57.4 | 13.7 | 42.6 |

*Notes.* In this table, IE 1 = intensive English course 1; IE 3 = intensive English course 3; BER = business English reading; TST = teacher-student-teacher.

Table 10

*The Description of Conversational Chains of Advanced English Courses*

| Name of courses | Total IRF numbers | IRF | | | |
| | | TST | | More complicated TST | |
| | | Number | (%) | Number | (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AW | 18 | 8 | 44.4 | 10 | 55.6 |
| BL | 11 | 7 | 63.6 | 4 | 36.4 |
| EC | 7 | 4 | 57.1 | 3 | 42.9 |
| Stylistics | 1 | 1 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Translation | 22 | 7 | 31.8 | 15 | 68.2 |
| AIE | 5 | 2 | 40 | 3 | 60 |
| IC | 10 | 4 | 40 | 6 | 60 |
| Average | 10.6 | 4.9 | 53.8 | 5.9 | 46.2 |

*Notes.* In this table, IE 1 = intensive English course 1; IE 3 = intensive English course 3; BER = business English reading; TST = teacher-student-teacher.

## Conclusions

The study has demonstrated that the amount of TT compared with that of the student talk constitutes the large percentage of the discourse quantity, and the average amount of TT in the fundamental course is less than that of advanced courses. It has found that teachers tend to employ display questions than referential ones, and on average teachers in fundamental courses ask more questions than those in advanced courses. In terms of the feedback, EFs are more than discursive ones, which indicates that most teachers focus more on language forms rather than discourse content. Besides, Conf C and CR have been used in all of the English courses as two frequently employed modification manners whereas Comp C have hardly been found, and this result is quite different from many foreign scholars' as mentioned in section "Interactional Modification Features". As for conversational chains, the number of IRF chain and the more complicated IRF chain is similar to each other in the both fundamental and advanced groups.

Based on what has found above and in the light of the previous empirical studies on TT, it is suggested that in the actual EFL (English as a foreign language) teaching, more referential questions should be raised in order to

motivate students to speak more and longer in answering questions, students expect more of teacher's positive EFs with specific comments on them in order to win the acknowledgement among teachers and classmates, more Conf C are to be made in class for the sake of students' face concern and the correct language input of the rest of the class, and IRF chain is still necessary in the present EFL learning environment since it can help teachers control their class efficiently and reach their teaching objective, and more complicated IRF chain is also recommended, especially those initiated by students first for the cultivation of students' learning autonomy.

The transcription of classroom observation is time-consuming, but it is definitely worthwhile to carry on since it can directly and authentically reflect what is going on in class and the data obtained can be used to guide the future teaching and research as well. Due to the limited number of English courses observed and lack of longitude research on those courses, the findings can only provide some insights for the actual EFL teaching. Therefore, in the future, more data from more courses are to be collected in order to strengthen the reliability of the research, and scholars can also focus on one of the five dimensions, like IRF chain by using the pragmatic theory to analyze the variety of raising the question in class from teachers and students.

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# Imitation for Creation's Sake:

# Parody as a Technique in Learning Advanced English

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This paper describes parody as an effective teaching and learning practice in Advanced English course offered to English major juniors and seniors. The objective of this course is to help heighten students towards a more advanced level of English proficiency, and its main preoccupation is doing intensive analyses of carefully selected texts which amount to well-established classics and are characterized with linguistic complexity. To enhance students' learning, we embed in the course a practice of parody, which here refers to the creation of an imitative work of an original written work, usually with an attendant comic effect. Upon the completion of each module, students are assigned the task of parodying part of the text, which involves recasting its overall content while retaining formal framework, thus offering students a means of re-paying homage to the excellence of the text. Writing a parody demands great artistry in shaping a creatively simulative work, in fitting exotic content into a local form, and in transplanting new experiential logic into old textual order. The parodies are then peer-reviewed as well as instructor-reviewed. Close observation and survey show that the students have displayed heightened motivation in engaging themselves in the practice and they have benefited greatly from it. Parody proves a particularly fruitful technique in teaching and learning Advanced English, and may also be useful in teaching English writing, since it entitles students to a very unique mode of savoring and wielding the artistic power of the English language.

*Keywords:* parody, Advanced English, artistry, imitation

## Introduction

EFL (English as a foreign language) learners at the tertiary level could hardly break the confinement fashioned and imposed upon by their L1 (first language) system and experience, suspiciously approaching fossilization and thus unmotivated learning (Selinker, 1972; Gardner, 1988; Sridhar, 1980; Han, 2004). They are characteristically caught in a tension between an expectation to upgrade language proficiency and a lack of self-motivation and practical methods to do so. To deal with this problem, learners need to be guided towards ways of using the target language that are particularly motivating and facilitative. Conventional methods and strategies of teaching and learning may be found incapable of achieving this effect, as is shown by students' response to the conventional teaching techniques usually involving memorizing and understanding exercises.

In this paper, the author describes the practice of parody adopted in Advanced English course offered to English major juniors and seniors. The English majors need practical guidance as to how to facilitate learning English at a higher level. To address this need, we have embarked on parody writing practice among the

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students. As will be shown, parody is not merely a figure of speech exploited in rhetoric, but also a technique to be utilized in learning and using language. Through the whole program of parody, we have found that students at the tertiary level can enjoy and benefit from this technique. Parodying is an act of homage to the artistry of the original text, thus an effective way to learn the text. The effectiveness resides in both the generation of students' motivation to use the target language forms and the enhancement of their acquisition.

## Parody as a Creative Practice and a Learning Strategy

Parody as a word has its etymology in ancient Greek *parōidia,* which means "to sing" (*Merriam-Webster Online English Dictionary*, 2014)*.* Through lexical borrowing and its evolving use, parody has undergone semantic mutation and in contemporary English it broadly refers to any practice or product of imitating another work, i.e., an original, be it literary, artistic, or the like. Harris and Hodges (1995) offered a standard definition of parody as "a work, often humorous, that imitates another, usually serious, work by burlesque or satire" (p. 179). As a practice, parody is widely adopted and seen in various forms of art (music, film, architecture) and literature (poetry, novel, drama, theatre), permeating almost all spheres of daily life (advertisement, apparel, etc.) (Harries, 2000; Dentith, 2000; Hutcheon, 2000; Gross, 2010). A well-known example is the widespread adaptation of the World War II British motivational poster "Keep Calm and Carry On" into multitudinous commercial advertisements, political slogans, and other visual products, such as "Keep Calm and Go Shopping". Imitative adaptations have actually become part and parcel of the symbolic actions and cultural practices in post-modern society (Rose, 1993).

In linguistics and literature, parody is frequently approached as a rhetorical device which encompasses all playful imitations of a textual source. Yet typical instances of parody are characterized by sarcasm. Based on how much sarcasm is realized in specific uses, parody can be categorized along a cline spanning from pastiche to burlesque (Dentith, 2000), with pastiche the lowest end of a scale of satirical value while burlesque the highest end. By ostensibly recycling the form of a pre-existing original, parodists could direct ridicule to either the original or to the referred-to matter in the newly composed product. A case of ridiculing the original is linguistic racism in parodies of Ebonics on the Internet as documented by Ronkin and Karn (1999).

Parody is fundamentally dialogic and double voicing in that one appropriates the voice of another (Bakhtin, 1981, 1984). In an extremely general sense, language users are all reduced to parody or intertextuality (see Jonathan, 2006), since they can do no more than "parrot" other's words and can never develop a personalized language in a restricted sense. Genette (1982) approached parody from the transformation of texts. He utilized "hypotext" to refer to the original and "hepertext" to refer to the parody. A hypertext transforms a hypotext in a playful or mocking way, in so far as the readers are usually peers who are quite familiar with the hypotext. Ridicule is based to a great extent on the familiarity of the hypotext to readers. The more the original form is familiar to the readers and the more it is immaculately preserved, the more amusing the hypertext will be. Likewise, Rossen-Knill and Henry (1997) developed a pragmatic model of verbal parody based on the view that parody is a human behavior, postulating that a successful parody involves the intentional representation of the object of parody, the flaunting of the verbal representation, the critical act, and the comic act.

In language learning, parody is often utilized as a writing strategy. Imitative writing of sentence patterns or writing styles from the perspective of rhetoric dates back to ancient Greece (Stott, 1990; Zahlan, 1987). A successful imitation is expected to recast the original's overall content while retaining much of its formal feature. This practice has gradually evolved into a learning technique widely adopted in intermediate

elementary school, high school, and tertiary schools (Rose, 1979; Schlichter, 1992; Huitt, 1991; Reeves, 1996; Tensen, 1997). Teachers believe that using this technique can motivate students and develop their creative writing skills, especially at the elementary level. Parody is then comparable to the concept of copy change (Rasinski & Padak, 1996) as a method to help students compose real or imaginative stories by changing elements or characteristics of a story to fit with their own ideas. This imitative writing technique is found to be very effective in supporting writers who lack confidence. Other related concepts to imitative writing of stories are copy-cat stories (Walker, 1992) and transformations of traditional stories (Sipe, 1993). Student writers can manipulate stylistic resources to achieve a playful effect. Apart from learning basic language points, students also learn about textual structure and how textual components fit together at the preparatory stage of doing a parodic work (Stott, 1990).

It has long been recognized that students learning a foreign language at the tertiary level need further motivation and encouragement to write. Parody can as well be applied to learners of English who have reached an advanced proficiency level, since it is essentially characterized by creation rather than by mere imitation and so it is not mechanical copying. The original, be it a formulaic expression, a syntactic construction, or a textual unit, needs somehow to be subverted for a parody to carry weight and bear semiotic worth. Composing a parody of a text, inter alia, demands greater artistry in shaping a creatively simulative work, in fitting exotic content into a local form, and in transplanting a novel experiential logic into an extant textual order. This implied challenge, however, can motivate students to do parodic work, as utilizing and subverting the original author establishes for the student-parodists their own authorship, thus power and confidence accruing to them in language use. To facilitate English majors' learning through using this language creatively, we tested text parodying in Advanced English course. Using classic texts provided in this course as the original for parodies can offer student-parodists a means of re-paying homage to the excellence of the texts on the one hand, and can upgrade students' level of language use on the other. In this paper, it will be shown that in the course of Advanced English, students display great enthusiasm in engaging themselves in this practice and they can benefit greatly therefrom. Text parodying proves a particularly fruitful practice to elevate learners' target language proficiency, which provides implications for EFL learning as a whole, inasmuch as parody entitles students to a very unique mode of savoring and wielding the artistic power of the English language.

## Method

The students participating in the parody practice are English major juniors and seniors from School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University, China. They have already attained a fairly high level of proficiency in English and are capable of doing critical reading of authentic texts. This practice is embedded into their Advanced English course, whose overall objective is to further enhance learners' English proficiency and critical ability by examining classic English texts of relatively high difficulty. Most of these texts are chosen from specified textbooks and other reliable resources, covering essays, news articles, excerpts of academic paper, excerpts of novel (e.g., George Orwell's *Animal Farm* (1945)), etc.. The instruction process comprises in-class text reading and analyses, typically involving author and background, text organization, main idea, cohesive devices, syntactic constructions, and key words. Students are usually assigned after-class extended reading and related translation or written homework. In addition to these conventional tasks, they are also assigned text parodying.

After examining each text, students are required to write a parody of some components of the text. It includes sentence parodying and paragraph parodying (single paragraph or paragraph group). The originals (sentences or paragraphs) to be parodied are recommended by the instructor based on the criteria of imitability and relative value.

The major focus of the practice is paragraph parodying, but in the initial stage of the program, students are first encouraged to do sentence parodying, considering that the task difficulty should be minimized in the beginning so that the task can be effectively carried out. To ensure the usefulness of sentence parodying, the chosen sentences are normally those that have lexio-grammatical complexity and/or a rhetorical pattern, and also carry an impressive idea. An example of a shorter sentence is "The life of an animal is misery and slavery: that is the plain truth" (Orwell, 1945, p. 2), while an example of a longer one is:

> Appetite is the keenness of living; it is one of the senses that tells you that you are still curious to exist, that you still have an edge on your longings and want to bite into the world and taste its multitudinous flavors and juices. (Lee, 1996)

As sentence parodying works well and students gradually get interested in this practice, then paragraph parodying is subsequently substituted. The paragraphs are controlled for length and content type to ensure that they can be accepted as appropriate originals. As students gradually make progress, the instructor opts for texts of increasing complexity. The text types used as originals include narratives, descriptions, expositions, and argumentations in an academic style. It has to be ensured that we progress from relative ease to difficulty, or otherwise the whole practice would meet disruption since it will cause contradictions to students' expectations.

The implementation of the practice involves the following steps: (1) designation of the original; (2) draft-writing and revising; (3) peer-editing; (4) instructor-students co-rating the parodies; (5) ranking and circulating; and (6) best-parody appreciating. A schedule is fixed for each step.

As has been shown previously, this practice follows the completion of intensive reading and analyses of the original text. During this process, students have become acquainted with the content and form of the targeted original, including the characteristic linguistic features. Some useful patterns or language points would have been figured out. As an additional preparatory step, the instructor then provides some guidance to students about what an effective parody would be like before they start the writing step. Some model parodies produced by previous students, if any, are provided to the current students as a reference. As a starter, the instructor has proffered the students an example parody of a part of a linguistically easier story. It is selected because it is enjoyable and easily imitable. By reading this parody and comparing it with the original, students can get a concrete idea of what a parody looks like and what possible effects it could achieve. It is a parody of the first two paragraphs of Langston Hughes's "Salvation" (1945). Here, Langston Hughes recalls a childhood experience of how he was brought to a church to accept Christ with his peers, relatives, and preacher. After a long-winded sermon the youngsters of the congregation were expected to come forward and accept Jesus. Instead of moving forward, Langston waited for the Lord to come to him. The first two paragraphs can be used as an original for a handy parody, since they lack complexity in form while they follow explicit logical patterns, going as follows (see Example (1)):

Example (1)

> I was saved from sin when I was going on thirteen. But not really saved. It happened like this. There was a big revival at my Auntie Reed's church. Every night for weeks there had been much preaching, singing, praying, and shouting, and

some very hardened sinners had been brought to Christ, and the membership of the church had grown by leaps and bounds. Then just before the revival ended, they held a special meeting for children, "to bring the young lambs to the fold." My aunt spoke of it for days ahead. That night I was escorted to the front row and placed on the mourners' bench with all the other young sinners, who had not yet been brought to Jesus.

My aunt told me that when you were saved you saw a light, and something happened to you inside! And Jesus came into your life! And God was with you from then on! She said you could see and hear and feel Jesus in your soul. I believed her. I had heard a great many old people say the same thing and it seemed to me they ought to know. So I sat there calmly in the hot, crowded church, waiting for Jesus to come to me. (Hughes, 1945, p. 18)

And then, the following is an example parody written by a certain student prior to the parody program (see Example (2)):

Example (2)

I was saved from insomnia when I drank several cups of beer last night. But not really saved. It happened like this. There was a hot pot feast among my dormitory mates. During the night of Mid-autumn Festival there had been much capsicol, pepper, beer and spirit, and some very homesick losers had been numb with the alcohol, and the membership of the Hotpot restaurant had grown by leaps and bounds. Then just before the feast ended, they held a traditional step for those young men, "to fight the liquor with others." My roommates spoke of it days ahead. That night I was forced to drink several cups of liquid, which was mixed with spirit and beer.

My roommate told me that when you were drunk you felt dizzy, and something amazing happened to you inside! And Venus came into your life! And the queen of happiness was with you from then on! He said you could see and hear and feel happiness in your soul. I believed him. I had heard a great many peers say the same thing and it seemed to me that they ought to know. So I drank one cup of beer after another in the noisy, crowded restaurant, waiting for Venus to come to me. (personal communication, September 19, 2013)

This re-created passage acquaints students with the form and likely effects of a parody. After being presented with this (easy) example, students have responded positively to the idea for them to engage in such a practice.

In the peer-editing step, students work in pairs to help each other revise and improve their drafts. Through this collaborative effort, they can heighten their sensitivity to both linguistic forms and the ideas being expressed on the one hand, and benefit from the face-to-face discussion episode on the other. After they have finished polishing and refining their work, all the parodies of the same original (in electronic version) are collected and distributed to the whole class and the instructor for joint rating. The rating criteria concern idea, formal loyalty, creativity, grammar, diction, and clarity. A ranking of their parodies is then made according to the rating results. Finally, the instructor and the whole class discuss the best written parodies on the top of the ranking. In this step, students give comments on these top works and exchange ideas about how they achieve expressive effects. Both merits and demerits of these works are discussed so as to inform better creation in the subsequent round. Notably, for each class there is an online platform which facilitates the collaborative steps.

Therefore, the whole procedure comprises both individual and cooperative participation, so students can monitor their own and one another's work. Meanwhile, the instructor also plays a monitoring role by setting the schedules and participating in the rating and best-work appreciating. The students would attach importance to this practice since their performance is monitored and evaluated by others as well as by themselves. This would motivate students to produce as good works as possible.

Students' attitudinal and evaluative feedbacks toward this learning practice are recorded by the instructor through observations of their participation and interviews of the students after several rounds of parodying.

## Results and Discussion

The results to be reported in this section include three major aspects: students' performance, students' attitude, and the effectiveness of the parody practice. The general observation is that the use of parody is an effective technique to facilitate students' English learning at a higher level.

**Students' Performance**

Students' parodies are generally of a high quality, characterized by well-formedness and coherence, since they have undergone peer-editing and revision. As parody is by nature an adaptation of an existing format to new content, students tend not to make grammatical errors in their work. The author takes a paragraph parody as an example. The original is the initial paragraph of John Steinbeck's "Americans and the Land" from *America and Americans* (1966). This paragraph is selected because it is a well-organized and compact description of a social-historical situation and contains very useful linguistic forms. It can offer students a pattern of logic in which to examine the nature and characteristics of some phenomenon that is worth describing.

The original is as follows (see Example (3)):

Example (3)

> I have often wondered at the savagery and thoughtlessness with which our early settlers approached this rich continent. They came at it as though it were an enemy, which of course it was. They burned the forests and changed the rainfall; they swept the buffalo from the plains, blasted the streams, set fire to the grass, and ran a reckless scythe through the virgin and noble timber. Perhaps they felt that it was limitless and could never be exhausted and that a man could move on to new wonders endlessly. Certainly there are many examples to the contrary, but to a large extent the early people pillaged the country as though they hated it, as though they held it temporarily and might be driven off at any time. (Steinbeck, 1966, p. 377)

Students are thus stimulated to adapt this framework into novel content of their own choice. Their finished parodies show that they have all identified a noticeable phenomenon in society or around them as the subject matter. The subject matters indeed cover a wide range, embracing events that are, prima facie, not akin to that of the original. Students have demonstrated wide perspectives and unique understandings of the matters concerned. With much of the original form retained, the parodies have generally achieved overall coherence. Below is an exemplar parody, which examines a social phenomenon "flash marriage" (see Example (4)).

Example (4)

> I have often wondered at the irresponsibility and thoughtlessness with which some impulse-driven couples approach the so-called flash marriage. They deal with it as though it were just a piece of cake, which of course it is. They disregard the nature of marriage itself and change the conventional idea about family; they forget the importance of long-lasting love, neglect the foundation of trust and support, set aside the advice from their relatives and friends, and dive into marriage without consideration. Perhaps they feel that marriage is just like a sprint and could get all the excitement in the world once they rush through the finishing line and that marriage is the "result" of a relationship. Certainly there are many examples to the contrary, but to a large extent the reckless men and women make their decisions at random as though they could control the process of feelings, as though they could get over terrible incidents and might stand the tiredness bred from the bottom of heart that will come into their marriage sooner or later. (personal communication, October 21, 2013)

This piece of writing is not a fictional account of an imagined situation, but a characterization of a real-life phenomenon epistemically accessible to students. It exhibits perfect well-formedness of sentence structures and lexical collocations, yet retaining the original framework and achieving its own semantic coherence. The

idiomatic expressions like "wonder at" and formulaic structures like "Certainly… but" are well recycled in the parody. In addition to some descriptive vocabulary of the original, some other advanced lexical items are also utilized by the author.

The good quality of parodies as such is first predicated upon the student author's correct understanding of the grammatical structures and key words in the original. Here, she has kept the sentence structural molds and substituted words denoting the referents of the flash marriage affair for the original key words. It is noteworthy that the parody is longer than the original, registering the fact that the author is not just mechanically replacing some words and expressions with others, but is actively engaged in utilizing the existing format to fully describe a meaningful unit of message.

Modelling from the same original, some parodies are otherwise accounts of historical events and imagined situations, like Example (5):

Example (5)

   I have often wondered at the meanness and cruelty with which our first emperor of Qin dynasty reached his throne. He reached it as if it was a kind of torture, which of course it was. He burned the books and buried the scholars alive; he forced his people to build the Great Wall and cut down the trees to establish his palace. He ruled his people cruelly and gathered too much tax. Perhaps he felt the people's tolerance would be limitless and he could do whatever he wanted because they would never betray him. Certainly there were many examples to the contrary, but to a large extent the first emperor reached his throne as though he deserved it, as though he held the power permanently and would never be defeated by other troops at any time. (personal communication, October 21, 2013)

Here, the student author adapts the structures and key words very skillfully while achieving strong coherence. Writing such a piece involves applying the student's existing knowledge about the historical event and correct understanding of the linguistic details. As illustrated by the above two examples, whatever specific subject matters are concerned with, the parodies have reflected students' sound knowledge of the organization of a description, proceeding from generality to specifics and then to implication.

The other central characteristic of students' parodies is humorousness and the attendant sarcasm. The humor derives from the tension between the formal congruence with the original and the content deviation from it. Since the originals are shared by students as readers, there is condition for humor to be perceived and understood through checking the message deviation and surface abidance. If presented to other readers who are not familiar with the original, humor would not arise. Thus, parodying need be a shared practice in order for a humorous effect to be achieved.

One special source of humor in the parodies is the trivialization of the subject matter. The originals might be an account of a "huge" matter, while the parodies could adapt its descriptive framework to a trifle. This strong tension between subject matters could lead to an impressive effect given that the surface form is rigidly retained. For example, Example (6) is the first sentence of a parody of the above original:

Example (6) I have often wondered at the eagerness and thoughtlessness with which women approached this supermarket. (personal communication, October 21, 2013)

Here, a relaxing topic, shopping craze, is framed in a seemingly serious tone, rendering the parody amusing and interesting, by virtue of an expectation of a "grand" subject projected by the existing impression of the discourse type versus the de facto trivialized matter.

One extreme feature of trivialization is the seeming bawdiness occasionally exhibited in the parodies of

some male students. They may invoke a sensitive matter as the subject so that the tension can become more marked to create amusingness, like Examples (7)-(8) (excerpted sentences).

Example (7) I have often marveled at the brutality and ferocity with which some rapists raped women. (personal communication, October 21, 2013)

Example (8) Original: It is a truth universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife. (Austen, 1813, p. 1)

Parody: It is a truth universally acknowledged that a young man in possession of a strong sex desire must be in want of a girlfriend. (personal communication, April 4, 2013)

These will invariably lead to readers' laughs given that there is a strong tension between the universally expectable from the original and the specifically unexpected. The substituting words fit exactly into the syntactic and semantic frame. Nevertheless, the ability to present a seemingly non-serious matter in a seemingly serious tone and linguistic framework reflects students' competence in using the target language and in creating a coherent discourse. They have generally demonstrated skills and creativity in composing their own version of account based on the same matrix form, irrespective of the content type of their parody.

**Students' Attitude**

Observations and interviews of the students show that they have demonstrated great enthusiasm in this activity and displayed great initiative in all the several steps involved. Students tend to have a rather full schedule, participating in various activities on and off campus. Notwithstanding, they have still immersed themselves in and enjoyed writing parodies. A good illustration is that students invariably finish and submit their parody on schedule or even ahead of schedule, with almost no delays, contrary to expectations for other writing assignments and similar tasks. It suggests that students are willing to write parodies and then share with others rather than treat the practice as a mere assignment or even burden.

The instructor has interviewed some students personally for their attitudes towards this practice. Their attitudes turn out to be overwhelmingly positive. The following are some of their attitudinal feedbacks (see Table 1):

Table 1

*Students' Feedback About Their Attitude Toward Parody*

| Aspects of attitude | Students' feedback |
|---|---|
| Cognition | a. "It is both easy and difficult, but upon finishing a work I get a strong sense of achievement." |
| Affect | a. "I think it's fun writing a parody of a serious work by a famous author."<br>b. "It's interesting to usurp the original author and I feel I stand on his shoulders while writing a parody."<br>c. "If parody writing is suspended, we would feel quite disappointed since we will be deprived of the pleasure in it."<br>d. "I enjoy the in-class sharing session of parodies. There will be a lot of fun." |
| Action | a. "Each time I would be eager to write and eager to compare mine with my roommates', and then we'll laugh together."<br>b. "I hope I could write better than the original author, so I try my best."<br>c. "Each time I expect my work to be the most unique one in our class." |

From the feedback, we see a strong sense of motivation derived from subverting an existing work. This is a fundamental factor underlying students' willingness to adopt this creative practice. Parody involves the imitation and transformation of another's words and ideas and thus makes the transformed result more or less the new writer's own creation. Students can see themselves empowered through the parodying process.

Moreover, doing parody of the same original invokes a "play frame" of verbal behavior, which can enhance students' solidarity (Coates, 2007; Bateson, 1953). As one of the feedbacks goes, students would

feel disappointed if parody is suspended since a source of joint pleasure would be eliminated. It can thus be claimed that parody can motivate students towards using the target language in a unique way and is generally favored by students.

**Effectiveness of the Practice**

Close observation of students' performance both in parody and in Advanced English course in general clearly shows that the parody practice has enhanced their learning. This effectiveness is instantiated in both students' feedback and their actual commitment to and performance in learning the course. The major benefits derive from all the steps of writing parodies and cover various aspects of English language learning.

In the preparatory stage, through careful and critical analyses of the original text, students enhance their sensitivity to the subtle usages of language forms. They examine in detail the specific linguistic features and patterns employed, including diction, collocation, grammatical phenomena, and figures of speech.

The originals used during the whole program cover a wide variety of discourse types and genres. A careful examination of them acquaints students with a concrete knowledge of how different types of text are organized and what characteristic linguistic patterns are likely to occur in each type. During the process of composing their own parody, students can also stop constantly to think about what possibilities are available to them concerning linguistic choice.

Here is a summary of these benefits illustrated by some of students' feedbacks obtained from interviews (see Table 2).

Table 2

*Students' Feedback About the Effectiveness of Parody*

| Aspects of benefits | Students' feedback |
|---|---|
| Vocabulary | a. "Parodying helps me learn the new words fast."<br>b. "We gain deeper understanding of the usages of the new words and key words."<br>c. "I check the dictionary more often than before to learn the specific usages of words." |
| Sensitivity to form and content | a. "I focus more on what content and details to select and use a lot of imagination."<br>b. "It provides us a good opportunity to adapt and use advanced grammatical forms."<br>c. "I have become more critical of the choice of words and expressions through composing my own parody and editing others'."<br>d. "I become aware of the discernible patterns that constitute beauty in language forms." |
| Thought | a. "Doing parody stimulates my thoughts and imagination." |
| Learning technique | a. "We can benefit more from parodying the text than reciting it."<br>b. "Discussing with each other about the merits and demerits of our parodies is a useful way of collaborative learning." |
| Commitment | a. "I feel more committed to learning the texts than before."<br>b. "I write; therefore I am." |
| Efficiency | a. "I write a parody faster than other compositions."<br>b. "It does not appear as frightening a task as the conventional writing assignments." |

As is shown from Table 2, a most immediate benefit is improving their vocabulary. Students not merely receive new vocabulary as it emerges, but consciously discover useful vocabulary and the important usages from both the original text and relevant resources like dictionary. Parody, essentially as a form of writing, has offered students a convenient way of using newly-acquired vocabulary and testing the use of related vocabulary. As is widely attested, use can lead to acquisition.

Tampering with texts written by others, parody has heightened students' awareness of grammatical patterns and complexities. Students inculcate in themselves the conventions and exceptions of linguistic forms by adapting and usurping the original (cf. Stott, 1990). A strong sensitivity to language forms and linguistic

features is part of what is required for developing writing style at a higher level and what makes a writer gain a sense of idiosyncrasy.

As to the benefit of provoking thoughts, parody has stirred up students' creativity in imagining situations of experience. Writing a parody with certain content being conceptualized and following the formal logic of a patterned text can facilitate students to think from both the perspectives of readers and writers (Tierney & Pearson, 1983). They constantly monitor their own thoughts with reference to the original and to a reader's perspective. When potential insufficiencies in thoughts occur, they would make revision until the thoughts can at least parallel those in the original. In other words, students are encouraged to plan their work as one superseding and exceeding the original. To this end, students are found to increase their engagement in more extensive reading. They are particularly seen to spend more time reading English literature and essays. As is shown by some of their parodies, some very romantic imaginary experiences are employed as the referred-to matter, rather than merely personal experiences restricted to the campus.

Students derive a lot of gains from the exchange of ideas during the peer-editing session. They evaluate each other's ideas and language quality, enjoying a chance of being a critic and proposing alternatives to what has been written by others. Pairs of students who edit each other's work often approach the instructor for a judgment on the correctness and appropriateness of certain forms and expressions. That is to say, peer-editing is not just for students to check the rudimentary mechanics of writing, but for them to take the role of a critic as well as a competitor. It is found in peer-editing that their mutual comments have more and more been characterized by professional perspectives to language use and writing techniques. They are sensitive, from the perspective of a professional critic, to who writes better than whom, and then make modification and refinement accordingly. They attend to forms and functions, applying relevant theoretical concepts and frameworks. Polishing their work has become a convention and part of their commitment to writing. In fact, students wrapped themselves in the whole process of writing, since they see themselves learn and benefit through collaborative effort. As the exemplary feedback shows, they would like to commit to this writing practice and extend it to similar courses. If this practice is adhered to, students' development in language proficiency is likely to be sustained and their confidence in using language will continue to grow.

Still, parody writing is a strategy that fosters in students a sense of being a writer. In fact, they believe themselves to be effective writers as along as the parody is constructed as a meaningful text. As one of the feedbacks indicates, students feel empowered when parodying a work written by a renowned writer.

There is also relatively higher efficiency in doing parody than doing other similar tasks. It is thus justified to apply parody in courses of English offered to English majors since this is a rare activity to which students display true enthusiasm and devotion. To identify oneself with a certain language using practice is facilitative in fostering a sense of belongingness to the community of English professionals. Such a sense of belongingness can bring about more attendant benefits for students' professional development.

In sum, parody has reinforced students' language proficiency and increased their creativity because it involves critical reading, critical thinking, critical writing, and critical evaluation, in line with Rhodes' (1981) observation of the effectiveness of parody writing. Applying such a practice has potential to advance students' linguistic refinement, given that they have already attained a rather high level of proficiency. As to language form, students pose questions to one another about what choices can more accurately and effectively express the intended idea. Parody facilitates students' understanding of patterns and heightens an appreciation for diversity (Graesser, Golding, & Long, 1991). Essentially as an artistic practice, just like using Photoshop or

carving a sculpture, parody entails a commitment to the creation of beauty both through the process and in the product. Moreover, students gain autonomy in the whole process, contrary to what typically happens in teacher-centered instructional activities (Graesser et al., 1991).

## Concluding Remarks

In the above, the author has reported the practice of text parodying as artistic creation in Advanced English course offered to juniors and seniors. Students have responded positively to this learning technique and have made active engagement in this practice despite the fact that they have a full schedule of everyday activities. Text parodying proves a particularly fruitful practice in teaching English to students at the tertiary level, and may also be useful in teaching English to students at other levels, since it entitles students to a very unique mode of savoring and wielding the artistic power of the English language.

Students have demonstrated very positive attitude toward this learning technique. For example, they complete and submit their work in better abidance with the schedule than they do in other learning tasks. Their writing has amazing quality, exhibiting high level of accuracy and appropriateness while glowing with humor and creativity. Students have the ambition to outperform the original writer as well as their peers. Using parody as a learning technique in Advanced English course has motivated the students to design and compose idiosyncratic texts. They learn from reading and analyzing the original texts, from editing and assisting one another's work, and from refining their own work. They develop a heightened sense of coherence and fluency in constructing a discourse of their own. Writing might be a headache for students who lack initiative, but parody writing can easily get them started and diminish their potential hesitation and resistance. Using language as an artistic performance proves useful not only for writing, but for language learning in general.

Student parodists gain pleasure from the tension between the audience's (classmates' and teacher's) familiarity with the original's form and content and the estrangement in the transformed creation, and so they enjoy exploring the inexhaustible possibilities of content recasting. The pleasure is also derivable from the shared fun created in a dialogic space where all students participate. Hence pleasure motivates learning and acquisition. Acquisition results also from a noticing effect (noticing both form and content) (Schmidt, 1990, 2001, 2010), and from the challenge posed to students' lexical ability and coherence-achieving ability.

Students increase confidence and enhance self-profile in using English by exploiting and subverting the original author and establishing their own authorship. Whilst parody basically exploits originals for adaptation, student writers at the tertiary level here exploit parody for subversion, viz., parody is imitation for creation's sake, hence granting the authors an access to a carnival where the game of words is brimming with sui generis leisure and pleasure. Parody is not confinement, but liberation, much as it is by nature not imitation but creation.

To approach parody from a pedagogic perspective, it emphasizes the importance of learning from others and the important effect on socialization (Vygotsky, 1962/1986). Learning can be more effectively enhanced by being positioned in a socially collaborative context. Working and learning with peers renders an activity more meaningful since there is much sharedness and communication. In addition, the overt competition among students and symbolic rewards also give incentive to their performance.

Admittedly, instructor's guidance in parody practice is necessary and important since it enlightens students' awareness of the various aspects involved in composing a good parody. The instructor gives directions and

encouragement, and suggests possibilities and criteria. The instructor needs to carefully select appropriate and truly useful materials as the original, since in principle almost all pre-existing materials can be possible choices for originals. Yet for students at the tertiary level, the instructor needs to take into account their specific needs and interests, and consider students' zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1962/1986), so as to decide on what is the most appropriate and beneficial. However, the instructor has only played an assisting role in the whole process. It is students themselves who play the central role in giving comments and judgments. They are motivated by assuming the role of an active participant rather than a passive recipient.

It is worth noting that all students can benefit from parodying, since there is artistic creation inherent in this practice. As earlier studies have suggested, students at primary level and secondary level both have enjoyed the benefits of parodying stories. It is very useful to apply parody among English learners of various backgrounds, whether those who have not yet acquired sufficient knowledge of this language or those who, prima facie, only need to refine their target language. It increases learners' exposure to high-quality target language forms and their opportunities to exercise their linguistic creativity on a solid platform. Adopting parody as a learning technique, students may draw analogies among writing, listening, speaking, and translating, and benefit acquisition as a whole. Thus, it is useful for instructors to integrate parody as part of the effort to meet instructional goals. Parody can make the attainment of the goals full of enjoyment and pleasure. At the tertiary level in particular, English majors benefit from the pleasurable process-oriented practice and its attendant creative activities, so on this account, there is also implication for speaking and performing arts associated with learning and using English at a higher level.

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# Teaching Gallo at School

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This study explores the origins and current status of the Gallo language at school—a minority language spoken in the eastern part of Brittany—among older speakers (group 1-41 informants) and students of Gallo (group 2-17 informants). The paper discusses different pedagogical methods, learning materials, and learners' status. The most important mission of schools is to increase public awareness about their linguistic environment which helps reassert minority identity through language acquisition and linguistic maintenance. Implementing an educational language curriculum for regional languages constitutes a main step towards the preservation of linguistic minorities. According to the informants interviewed during the fieldwork, both groups express positive reactions towards the presence of Gallo at school (group 1—80%; group 2—92.9%). However, in follow-up discussions, a certain number of older speakers seem to be more reluctant, because the variety of Gallo taught at school is different from the one which was transmitted to them. In conclusion, bilingual and immersion programs are increasingly successful in Brittany and could lead to a wider recognition of Eastern Brittany's language and culture.

*Keywords:* language acquisition, representations, language transmission, language preservation

## Introduction

Blanchet (2002) and D'Hervé (2005) described the way Gallo is perceived at school among learners and how it is taught. This research establishes that language transmission in private spheres has considerably dropped (e.g., family) (Nolan, 2008a). It also examines the relationship between the acquisition of language and identity among younger learners (Nolan, 2008b).

Results show that both groups—more than 80%—are in favor of an initiation to Gallo in school at an early stage. The findings reveal that younger speakers are not always informed as to whether than they can take Gallo courses after they graduated from high school. Most informants from group 1 express support towards teaching Gallo at school at all levels of education, from elementary school up to college.

## The Educational System: Learning Gallo at School

### History and Evolution

In 1977, the Charte authorized teachers and instructors to use and teach Gallo language and culture in elementary and secondary schools. Starting in 1979, the Association des Amis du Parler Gallo and its President, Gilles Morin, strongly recommended providing a continuous education in Gallo from kindergarten up to university level. The language was in fact introduced as an optional subject that students could take as an elective course.

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The association Les Compagnons de Merlin initiated the introduction of Gallo at school in the 1940s. In 1976, Leray brought an innovative approach to pedagogical methods on Gallo. Teachers were asked to develop writing and speaking skills in class following the Freinet pedagogy. The Freinet pedagogy developed in the late 19th century is still used nowadays by many schools and insists more on oral activities and discussions. In the classroom, teamwork in learning processes is a key concept. The teacher takes on the minimal role of, for instance, a guide or a mediator, and authority is identified as a form of violence. Children are allowed to express themselves freely via the creation of texts, drawings, letters, and newspapers.

In 1982, the focus was clearly placed on strategies to avoid failure at school. One or two hours of Gallo were available to 6th and 7th graders and optional courses were offered in high school. The students could choose to take a test on Gallo language and culture for the baccalauréat.

In 1994, Gallo was also offered at the IUFM[1] as an optional field for future teachers. The Regional Council of Brittany (Le Conseil Régional de la Bretagne) urged for the protection of Gallo and adopted a project on linguistic policy in 2004:

> Le gallo est la langue romane spécifique à la Bretagne et fait partie au même titre que le breton de son patrimoine culturel…[il] souffre néanmoins d'un manque de visibilité dans la société bretonne moderne. Les collectivités territoriales et l'Etat se doivent de protéger le patrimoine culturel que constitue le gallo et d'en favoriser l'étude scientifique et l'usage[2]. (D'Hervé, 2005, p. 269)

At college level, in the DEUG[3] program of the University of Rennes 2, a course on "langue et civilisation gallèses"[4] was created and added to the curriculum of the Celtic department in 1982. Henriette Walter started a Gallo curriculum in the department of General Linguistics and studied phonology with her students until 1993. The collaborative work between Leray, Blanchet, and Manzano aiming for a more scientific approach on the regional variety, Langue et culture régionale de Bretagne: le gallo, led to the opening of two official university programs in Rennes 2. Finally, a researcher group named CREDILIF[5] was created and directed by Philippe Blanchet. These programs annually publish "Les Cahiers de Sociolinguistique" and make public numerous ongoing projects on the Gallo community.

**Teachers and Students**

Teachers of Gallo compare and share pedagogical experiences through L'Association des Enseignants de Gallo. The association remains under the supervision of the Education Nationale. Today, there are 12 instructors of Gallo (30 in the 1990s) who cover two full-time teaching positions and four half-time positions in elementary and secondary education. Most of them originally grew up in a rural environment (farming essentially) hearing and/or speaking the language regularly and volunteered to share their knowledge of Gallo language and culture.

All of them are teachers in different fields (history, foreign languages, French, etc.) and stress the

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[1] Instituts Universitaires de Formation des Maîtres, which provide a year-training for future teachers for any level of education.

[2] Translation: Gallo is a Romance language specific to Brittany and like Breton it belongs to its cultural heritage… nevertheless it suffers from a lack of visibility in the modern Breton society. Territorial organizations and the State must protect the cultural heritage of Gallo and favor its scientific study and usage.

[3] Diplôme d'Etudes Universitaires Générales, equivalent of the first two years of college. This degree no longer exists.

[4] Language and history of Gallo.

[5] Centre de Recherche sur la Diversité Linguistique de la Francophonie—Research Center on Linguistic Diversity of the Francophone World.

importance of what Gallo can bring to the students. For the most part, they are "pioneers" and have struggled to have their language accepted at school.

As for the students, motivations vary depending on their age and the place of Gallo culture within the family. This last factor can play a positive role on the final decision to take Gallo in high school for instance. Some students, who are not natives of Haute-Bretagne, express curiosity for the language variety of the region. In college, those who are taking Gallo courses often wish to improve the language skills they acquired earlier.

Nine high schools, 13 junior high, and 28 elementary schools (Premier degré—first degree) offered Gallo courses in 2001-2002 across the départements of Ille-et-Vilaine, Côtes d'Armor and Morbihan (with two schools only). In 2000-2001, four high schools, nine junior high and 11 elementary schools provided classes in Gallo. Within one year, 23 schools adopted optional courses on Gallo in the département of Ille-et-Vilaine, three in the Côtes d'Armor and two in the Morbihan (D'Hervé, 2005). The exception is the département of Loire Atlantique where Gallo language is totally absent from schools for two reasons mainly. The first reason is ideological: The introduction of the regional language at school is strongly linked to active support from local associations and individuals in other areas of Haute-Bretagne. This movement does not seem to be as popular in Loire Atlantique. Second, administratively, the Loire Atlantique is separated from the rest of the Bretagne historique. This department included in the Pays de Loire (not in Bretagne like the other four) does not fall under the same laws when it comes to the enforcement of the regional language at school.

## Courses and Materials

Emphasis on oral skills while exploring stories, songs, and dancing constitutes the base of teaching methodologies at the first levels of learning (elementary school). Learners are asked to act and play with the language by collecting words, sentences and in the end create their own stories. There is no textbook used in more advanced learning as the students have a direct contact with the language through data collecting, interviews with older speakers, and creation of texts.

When reaching the terminale[6], students are asked to study a corpus of texts in the regional language for the baccalauréat examination. In the fall 2008, a program in Gallo language and culture was created at the Université Rennes 2 (filière langue et culture gallèses), but this field may be threatened to disappear, due to the lack of financial support from the regional council and from the State. The majority of the families show a strong interest for the language and culture of the region because they have been sharing Gallo traditions and values for several generations. In the first stages of acquisition, intergenerational exchanges are decisive.

## Limits and Specific Issues

Agreeing on and adopting a common orthography (graphic normalization) differs from the process of language standardization and this step is often considered as a linguistic impoverishment of the variety. In order to facilitate the teacher's tasks, it would be preferable to adopt a more global graphic system which includes the different dialects of Gallo. How to represent the "standard" form of a variety is a difficult matter, which generates discussions about the place and the status of the language in the sociolinguistic context of Haute-Bretagne.

The first mission of schools is to increase public awareness (young students and their parents) on their surrounding linguistic environment to eventually open the mentalities toward a positive image of the speech

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[6] Last year of high school when students take the "baccalauréat", equivalent of SAT in the US.

variety they are learning. In practice, teachers encounter various problems and drawbacks in the classroom. The first issue is a critical need for new pedagogical material to help instructors teach Gallo. Also, the language is not fully represented and spoken in classroom environment due to difficulties the teachers encounter. For instance, they have to put up with insufficient financial aid and a general negative mentality towards the regional variety, as the acquisition of the local variety is viewed as unnecessary.

Thanks to militants and teachers (enseignants-militants) who progressively managed to introduce Gallo in the national education system, the community can view its language in more positive terms and hopefully this will change the stigmatized image that the variety often carries.

Tenacity and motivations from teachers and learners influence the transmission process of language and culture within the region of Haute-Bretagne. Even though Gallo has the most developed teaching system of all Oïl languages inside the Education Nationale, it is far behind in terms of what regional councils have achieved for the other regional varieties using bilingual curricula and various pedagogical structures. For instance, the region of Basse-Bretagne (Celtic area) created public bilingual schools (Div Yezh)[7], private bilingual schools (Dihun) and immersive programs (Diwan) from kindergarten up to the university level. This constitutes a first step toward the reassertion of the Gallo identity through the language itself and the harmonization of its teaching across the region. This task would be more successful if the speakers expressed their willingness to preserve and maybe transmit their language.

## Recent Research in the Field

The study on school and extended family in the transmission and revitalization of Gallo in Upper-Brittany published by Nolan (2008a) highlights a sharp decline in the transmission of Gallo, even though the transmission has not ceased completely.

Nolan introduced a preliminary observation on Gallo transmission and practices and claimed that approximately 28,300[8] speakers of Gallo remain in the region. The study observes a change in the acquisition pattern: Parents learned Gallo with mothers or grandparents and now students learn it with fathers more. The results demonstrate that there is a severe fall in transmission and Gallo has a primarily affective role (symbolic and cultural value of small languages) and its usage is extremely limited outside of immediate family circles.

The second study on the role of Gallo in the identity of Upper-Brittany school pupils of the language variety and their parents (Nolan, 2008b) examines the relationship between language and identity. This research offers predictable results: 569 informants from middle school and high school students were contacted between 2003 and 2004, 10 interviews were conducted and 136 questionnaires were returned during that year. The 15-19 year-old age group offered the largest number of responses. Nolan formulated two hypotheses: (1) There seems to be an intergenerational difference in opinion towards Gallo identity; and (2) Nolan also observed a lack of overt activist motivation to study Gallo at school.

Both positive and negative sentiments were expressed and a variety of expressions and words were collected such as "real identity", heritage, belonging, and themes like peasantry, and poverty[9] for negative standpoints.

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[7] Association of parents in favor of Breton in public school system.
[8] This number is taken from Le Boëtté (2003). Blanchet and Le Coq (2006) estimated the number of Gallo speakers to be around 40,710 and the association Bertaeyn Galeizz provided a higher number, approximately 200,000 speakers, in 2007. They clearly use a different definition of what constitutes a "speaker".
[9] La paysannerie, la pauvreté.

The main idea is that people can feel gallésant[10] without speaking or understanding the language fluently: "This certainly does not negate the role of Gallo in Upper-Brittany identity, it means that Gallo is perceived as being an element of Upper-Breton identity consciousness, but does not have to be spoken" (Nolan, 2008b, p. 149).

      Nolan concluded that the language of Haute-Bretagne may have gained some ground on Breton, even though Gallo is more localized and Breton is associated to the whole region. Gallo is perceived as an element of High-Brittany and the feeling of belonging to that community does not necessarily mean "speaking the language". It is a different way of relating to the group by sharing traditions, regional knowledge or common roots, for instance a shared knowledge of the surrounding environment (nature) and savoir-faire (recipes) creates a sense of belonging to that group.

## Methodology and Results

      It is interesting to note that informants 92.9% of group 2 is more in favor of having "optional" Gallo courses at all levels (elementary, middle, and high school) and 80% of group 1 think that Gallo courses should be optional starting in junior high (see Figure 1).
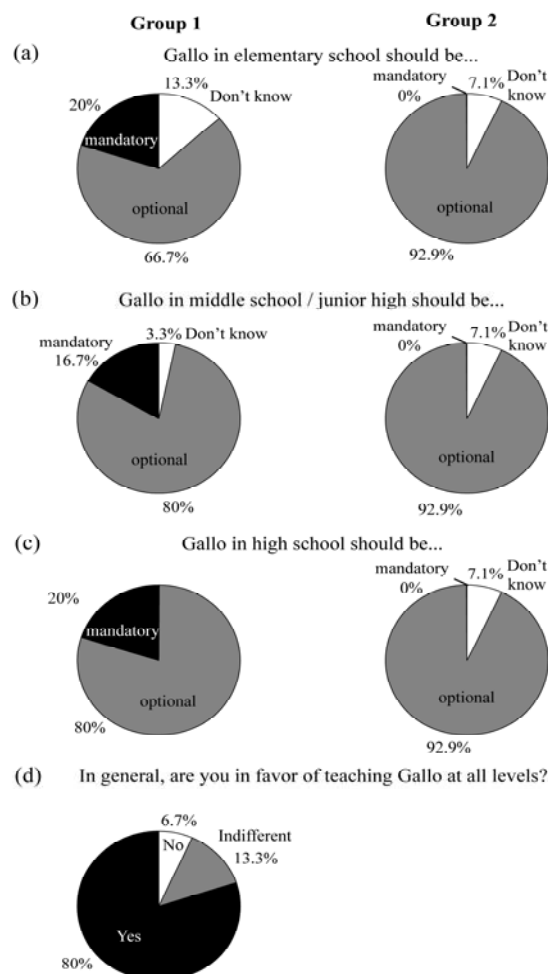


*Figure 1.* Optional or mandatory.

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[10] Member of the Gallo community, it does not include the notion of "speaking" the language.

Most students are not always aware that they can pursue the study of the language as 42.9% of them answered that they did not know whether or not Gallo was offered at the university level. But 70% of informants from group 1 seem informed that Gallo courses are offered at the university level and 83.3% of them are in favor of it versus 50% for group 2. As mentioned earlier, older informants are generally in favor of Gallo courses at all levels, as early as elementary school. Sixty-six point seven percent of positive answers were recorded for group 1 and 42.9% for group 2 (see Figure 2).
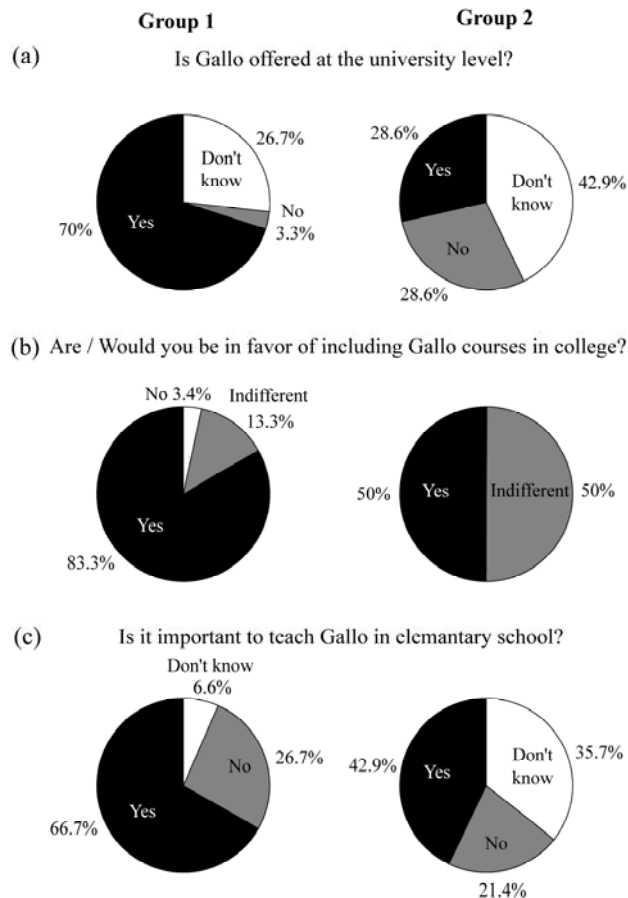


*Figure 2.* Gallo in elementary school and college.

A discrepancy exists between the way informants feel about representations on Gallo identity and their involvement in language planning processes. For instance, what they think about the acquisition of Gallo at school and the acquisition of other regional languages differ from judgments they express towards their linguistic practices. There is a sincere interest and a true motivation to learn the language from the group of students. This group is more aware of and sensitive to efforts on the preservation of Gallo. In reality, there is little or no continuity in the acquisition of the Gallo language at higher levels of studies (for instance, at college level). This shows a contradiction with the second group.

During the interviews, older speakers expressed more reluctant feelings towards the acquisition the language at school, because it is a different variety and they do not think it is worth transmitting and preserving. The impact of past stigmatization of the Gallo language and culture is more present among older speakers due to their youth memories and experiences. However, they show support for Gallo transmission in general.

## Conclusions: What Kind of School?

Besides the numerous workshops (short-term and long-term professional training programs) proposed by different associations to large audiences, the work of Dihun, in particular, contributes to promoting the acquisition of the Breton and Gallo languages at an early age. This association of parents, with a strong Breton-speaking background, is convinced of the advantages that bilingualism and multilingualism can bring to their children. The objective of Dihun is to introduce bilingualism in Breton or Gallo and French, plus the acquisition of a third language—for instance English—following the guidelines of the Programme Multilingue Breton[11]. The diversity in the pedagogical materials used for teaching methods in Gallo (videos, audio files) becomes an asset for children in kindergarten and elementary school as they acquire the language in a more natural and immersive way.

In June 2010, Dihun proposed an international colloquium on "Quelle politique linguistique pour la Bretagne du 21ème siècle"?[12] The objective is to show that the linguistic policy for Brittany is not limited to the Breton and Gallo languages. This approach allows children to have access to multiple languages in junior high: French, English, and a fourth language. The language acquisition is based on linguistic immersion.

Immersion programs must be rapidly implemented in elementary school and later on in the curriculum in order to reach a stable and continuous transmission process in school. Dihun started offering that option in Catholic schools, but this approach is almost inexistent in the public school system of Brittany. For instance, the association of parents Div Yezh[13] supports immersive teaching methods in the public school system, however, they do not represent a majority. It is important to establish a dialogue with older generations. In some cases, classes are asked to collect Gallo expressions or words among family members and neighbors, so that the young learners are aware of the existence of the Gallo language in their immediate environment: "il faut éviter la moquerie et la dévalorisation de la langue… faire intégrer le fait que le gallo n'est pas un truc affreux"[14] (personal communication, July 7th, 2009)[15].

Rethinking language attitudes reduce negative reactions towards the language and its speakers. It creates a sense of awareness of the local identity among younger learners.

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[11] PMB, Breton Multilingual Program focuses on the acquisition of three languages simultaneously.
[12] What kind of linguistic policy for 21st century Brittany?
[13] A parents association in favor of bilingual language programs.
[14] Translation: we have to avoid mockery and depreciation of the language… need to understand that Gallo is not an awful thing.
[15] N 17, M, 23:55, Sérent.

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# The Application of Task-Based Language Teaching to "Longman English Interactive"

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Interactive courses are becoming more and more popular today. LEI (Longman English Interactive) is one of them. Recently, many teachers in mainland China learn to adopt TBLT (task-based language teaching) in these interactive courses including LEI. However, some of them feel confused about how to apply TBLT more effectively in their classes since they may not understand clearly why TBLT is such a "matching" teaching method for this type of classes. To illustrate this issue, this paper sets LEI as an example. It firstly analyzes the syllabus design of LEI based on the theories of communicative teaching approach, then discusses about why the renowned TBLT is a suitable method to organize the class, and finally exemplifies how TBLT can be fully applied to the course in real classrooms. The objective of this paper is to inspire English teachers to have a better application of TBLT in interactive classes alike.

*Keywords:* task, interactive, communicative, TBLT (task-based language teaching)

## Introduction

Interactive courses are becoming more popular today. LEI (Longman English Interactive) is a teaching program designed by Pearson Longman (2003) for English learners. It is a four-level teaching program. Each level has three modules named as A, B, and C including four to five units, at the end of which are module tests to check about the learning. Recently, many teachers in mainland China adopt TBLT (task-based language teaching) in LEI class. As is well known, TBLT is a branch of communicative teaching approach (WANG, 2010). However, some teachers may not understand clearly why TBLT is such a "matching" method for this class and thus they feel confused about how to apply TBLT to this type of classes effectively. To solve this problem, to begin with, LEI teachers should have a clear understanding of the syllabus design of LEI.

## Syllabus Design of LEI

LEI primarily combines two types of syllabuses in an integrated way, with a situational syllabus as the axis, crossed by a notional/functional syllabus, as shown in Figure 1.

In every unit of LEI, one would find a situation that involves several participants who are engaged in certain activities in a specific setting. But unlike courses arranged in separate situations, LEI projects itself with serial

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drama. For instance, level 3 as a whole tells an exciting story between an aspiring journalist and a sports star accused of taking bribe. In each unit, one would hear part of the story which relates closely to the next one but can be taken relatively independent on its own.
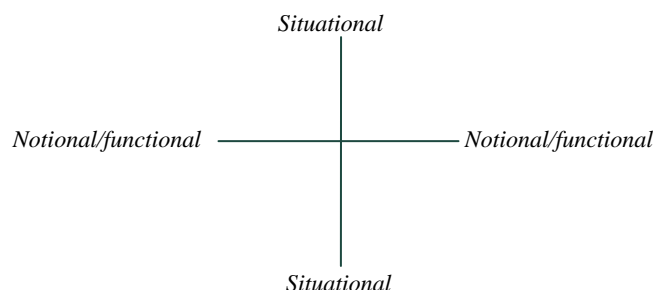


*Figure 1.* Two types of syllabus.

Besides, the Scope and Sequence for LEI presents another main syllabus adopted the notional/functional one. Wilkins (1976) differentiated three types of notional-functional categories: semantic-grammatical categories, categories of modal meaning, and categories of communicative function. In the case of LEI, one can see that items in different modules of the course fall into these three categories. The following are some examples taken from different modules of the course.

In speaking modules at level 3, there are different communicative functions such as "make social plans, accept and decline invitations" in A1; "respond to news or gossip" in A2; "convince someone to let you do something" in A3; and "confirm that you know someone" in A4. In addition, phonological aspect of the language is also taught from communicative perspective. In pronunciation module, things like "intonation with names, stress with possessives" in B2, level 1, "surprise question intonation" in B4, level 1, "number and dollars, the sound" in B5, level 1, etc., all confirm the idea of learning language for communication.

And in the grammar module of A1, level 3, items like "expressions for suggestion: why don't we, how about, let's" are of communicative function as well. And items like "adverbs of frequency", "ordinal numbers, days, and dates", "telling time", "questions with this/that, these/those", are notions of a language, which fall into semantic-grammatical categories proposed by Wilkins (1976). "Modals of advice (should, ought to)", "modals of preference: prefer, would rather" are the modal meaning of English. Therefore, it can be seen that almost every grammatical item listed in LEI is notional and functional, which is totally different from that of the structural syllabus. Besides, LEI features animated explanations in all those grammatical items.

What deserves attention is that the mixture of these two syllabuses of LEI just sets the negotiation of meaning in a very natural and authentic social context so that notions and functions of a language are not listed as the accumulation of isolated items but realized into discourse. Therefore, the course incorporates the four aspects claimed by Yalden (1987) for a communicative syllabus, namely, conceptual meaning, modal meaning, communicative function, and discourse structure, which makes the course a communicative one in name.

In LEI class, students would watch the drama in the listening module of the course first. The other relevant modules include exercises about vocabulary, speaking, pronunciation, grammar, reading, and writing. Arranged so, all the exercises in the course are the contextualized ones to be practiced. For example, an exercise of speaking part enables learners to get engaged in role-plays with video characters to create realistic dialogue.

The model mentioned above makes CAS possible. CAS stands for giving contextualized attention to signs. The concept of CAS was proposed by Mellow in 2002. He claimed that learners can learn a language in levels from form to function with coherent and sequential activities which require the expression of meaning within the context of a communicative event. The design of LEI just exemplifies the concept of CAS.

## The Application of TBLT in LEI Class

One knows that for LEI the learning of form and function of English language is set in a context, which is based on the communicative syllabus. As is known to language teachers, communicative syllabus always takes the desired communicative competence as the starting point. Therefore, teachers should focus on developing students' communicative competence.

The teaching objectives set for LEI course should be skill-oriented, especially in terms of listening and speaking. In this paper, the model unit selected to teach is A1of level 3, the beginning of the level. Integrating the contents listed in Scope and Sequence for A1, teachers may extract the following items as their teaching objectives: After the class, students should be able to: (1) predict relationships between people; (2) listen to facts about people's lives; (3) describe your feelings and lifestyles; and (4) extend, accept, and decline invitations.

Since communicative activities are claimed to be fundamental in developing learner's communicative competence, CLT (communicative language teaching) intrinsically becomes the teaching approach for LEI.

There are two principles to follow to design communicative activities. One is the information-gap principle and the other is the task-dependency principle. Information gap is one of the most important features of real-life communication. The task-dependency principle requires the students utilize the information obtained in the course of an exercise (HOU, 2008). These two organizational principles will be exemplified in the model lesson.



*Pre-Task*

*Consciousness-raising*

*Activities Observation,*

*Discovery of Topic,*

*Brainstorming*

*Task Cycle*

*Manipulating the target language: Pairwork Activities,*

*Group Work Activities and Information Gap Activities*

*Post-Task*

*Real-life Application:*

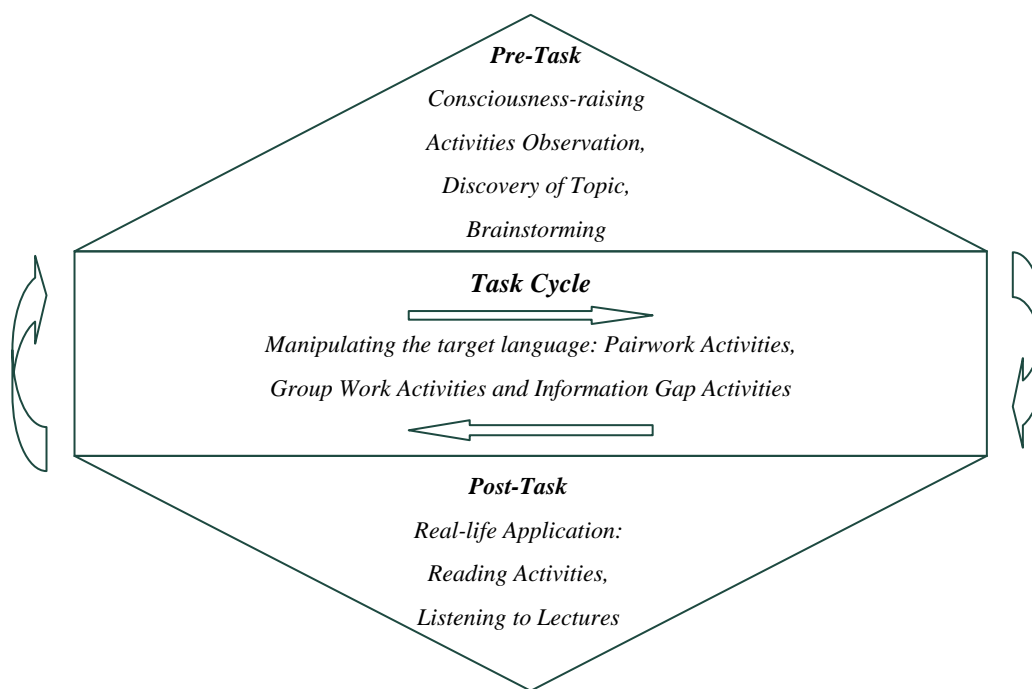*Reading Activities,*

*Listening to Lectures*

*Figure 2.* Jane Willis' Framework (1996, p. 222).

The students selected for the model lesson are the top ones taken from the freshmen of non-English majors in Northeastern University in 2012. After tested, they are supposed to be able to pass CET 2. These students are highly motivated to improve their English, especially their spoken English. Thus, the teacher selects LEI level 3 as the start.

Generally speaking, the teaching method in this class is TBLT, which is an offshoot of the approach of CLT. One may adopt Willis' framework of CLT (Willis, 1996) in LEI class. TBLT of Figure 2 concerns both the process of learning and the mutual interaction among students. Tasks always imply several skill areas, not just one. All skills become subsumed under what students are going to do with this language.

**Pre-task phase.** In A1 of level 3, the heroine Talia was described as a workaholic and her coworker and friend Amy invited her to a party for relaxation before their boss Tony assigned a new task to her.

As is shown in the framework, during the pre-task phase, teachers should introduce the topic and the task to the class through brainstorming and activating topic-related words and phrases.

At the beginning, teachers can ask students to match the pictures of different faces with the words for feelings. They can also design exercises to expand vocabulary for the following video watching tasks and speaking tasks. This is where the task-dependency principle for CLT applied. The task-dependency principle requires that students utilize the information obtained in the course of task 1 to complete task 2. This pre-task is taken as the start of the input of the language, which helps to ensure various skills will be practiced later in the course.

**Task cycle phase.** Then it comes to the main body of the course, the task cycle. As one can see from the framework, this phase is characterized by the engagement of various groups of learners in solving tasks or problems. Before students watch videos, they are asked to predict "How do they look like? What might be their lifestyle? Where do they work every day? What are they doing now? Who utters these lines?" These questions are problem-solving ones created on the information gap principle. Likewise, this principle can be applied to designing other exercises in video watching phase, such as global understanding and understanding in depth.

By asking these questions, teachers assist students to assimilate what they have learned from the video and at the same time give them opportunities to practice vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation to be taught in this unit. With these initiated questions and interactions between teachers and students, the first two teaching objectives "predict relationships between people" and "listen for facts about people's lives" are achieved. Having done these, students will have a good input for the following speaking tasks.

Speaking task 1 asks students to repeat several sentences uttered by the characters. This task not only gets students to know the importance of learning pronunciation but also gets students prepared for the next two speaking tasks.

In task 2, students have to work in groups of four. One student chooses an adjective from the word bank and then describes to the group when he or she feels that way, but does not use the actual word. This is closely related to the vocabulary task which has been done in the pre-task phase. One just begins one's sentence with "I feel this way when…" Then the other students will guess how the guy feels. If they do not guess correctly after the first sentence, one can give them another one. Arranged so, learning in LEI class is cooperative rather than competitive.

Task 3 is more of an integrated one. In this task, one works alone to choose a job that is right for oneself and a job that is not, and then work in pairs to talk about the job choice and the reason for it with adjectives in the word bank. They should give response to what their partners talk about.

Speaking task 4 starts with a list of functional expressions concerning the second speaking objective of this class, "Extend, accept, and decline invitations". Students are asked to role play two dialogues first, which are controlled tasks. Another exercise goes less controlled when students are required to make a dialogue to extend an invitation on their own. And some conversation strategies will be added when the invitation is declined.

**Post-task phase.** In addition to those pedagogical tasks finished in class, students are also required to finish target tasks after class to strengthen what they have learned. The target task should be an integrated one which aims to incorporate all practiced in class. Finishing all these tasks in and after class, students find it easy to reach the learning goals set for this lesson.

As for other interactive aspects in LEI, students can have a self-assessment of their study by doing on-line exercises marked and recorded automatically by the course system. LEI features on-line self-assessment tests from units to modules to levels. With this, both teachers and students can see the progress in learning with record. Teachers can also supervise the learning and interact with their students on the platform of LEI after class.

## Conclusions

As its name suggests, LEI is an on-line interactive course. It is known that the communicative function of language compels teachers to create opportunities for genuine interaction between teachers and students and that among students in and after class. Appropriate tasks in and after class can be taken as the proper medium to create situations for real interaction and thus can be taken as the main way of organizing teaching in class like LEI. In this sense, teachers should be facilitators rather than controllers both in and after class and they may only intervene as needed in order to ensure that students keep on tasks.

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# The Influence of the First Language (Arabic) on Learning English as a Second Language in Jordanian Schools, and Its Relation to Educational Policy: Structural Errors

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This study was conducted to investigate the influence of the L1 (first language) (Arabic) on learning ESL (English as a second language) in Jordanian schools, and its relation to education policy. The sample of the study consisted of 266 high school graduates Jordanian students in the academic year 2013-2014. A translation test consisted of 24 items and divided to eight areas was constructed to arrive at the objectives of the study. The study concluded that the percentage of total errors committed by the study sample in all areas exceeds percentage of correct answers (wrong answers is 52.48%, correct answers is 47.52%), and the students committed more transfer errors in the types of *verb to be*, *addition to*, and *passive voice* than other types of errors as a result of the effect of the L1.

*Keywords:* English language, Arabic language, education policy

## Introduction

English is today the world's most widely used language. The desire to learn it at the present is so immense. The future of English as an international language has always been said to rest on the practicability of teaching the language (Mohammed & Jaber, 2008).

Due to the latest developments in information and communications technology that have taken place in the past decade (early 21st century), English has become more dominant in all walks of life than ever before, it is used everywhere. One out of four people around the world can communicate in English. English is the official language of major political and economic alliances such as the Commonwealth countries, the EU (European Union), the NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries), and the ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations). It is the language of 85% of international organizations and the main language of technology, business, finance, and tourism (Al-Jarf, n.d.).

Fishman (1998-1999) placed English on the top of "the new linguistic order". Despite the fact that the total number of the native speakers of English is far below that of some languages like Mandarin, it has become the language of the media, the Internet and academia, and even the preferred language among young officials in the EU. The status of English in many countries has been explored, and from many different perspectives.

English has become a global language that is used or required as a medium of communication and learning in so many contexts worldwide (Bani-Khaled, 2013). Most researches, references, technical terms, international

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conferences, and electronic databases are in English, and 90% of the material published on the Internet use English as a primary language (Al-Jarf, n.d.). In the majority of Arab countries, English is often viewed as the most prestigious foreign language or L2 (second language). This status has been a legacy of the colonization of some Arab countries by Great Britain, which tried to promote the use of its native language in all possible walks of life (Hamdan & Abu-Hatab, 2009). In Jordan, English enjoys a prestigious status being the major foreign language widely taught in schools and institutions of higher education (Bani-Khaled, 2013). Al-Haq and Al-Masaeid (2009) investigated the attitudes of Jordanian university students towards language planning in Jordan. The findings proved that language planning is ideologies. The study proved that Jordanians view English as the language of the future, a language which its mastery would open wide the opportunities of the education, business, and trade.

The status of English in Jordan is reflected in newspaper job ads. (advertisements) as shown by research done by Hamdan and Abu-Hatab (2009). They examined ads. published in 1985, 1995, and 2005, and English language documents in the educational domain. The study showed a steady increase in the percentage of English ads.. They also reported a significant increase in the percentage of ads. that make English proficiency a precondition for employment.

Arabic is the official language in many countries, including Jordan. There are many Arabic dialects, but there is one version that is taught in schools and used by the media across the Arab world. As it is a Semitic language, its grammatical structure is very different from that of European languages. There are far fewer areas of facilitation, and far greater areas of interference (Qaid & Ramamoorthy, 2011).

Due to the increasing dominance of the English language, the number of people seeking to learn English is increasing. About one billion students are learning English worldwide. English is taught as a foreign or L2 at schools and universities in almost every country. In many Arab countries, the number of English language institutes has considerably increased. In addition to private schools that offer intensive English courses starting from KG (kindergarten), private schools with international programs use English as a medium of instruction in the content areas such as math, science, geography, and history starting from first grade. In a globalized world where English has become a global language, many people—including Jordanians—currently feel that English is superior to all other languages including Arabic. Many young people have become keener on learning English than Arabic as they feel that English is superior (Al-Jarf, n.d.). Bani-Khaled (2013) examined the perceptions and views of learners of English as a foreign language in some disadvantaged Jordanian schools. A free composition task (in Arabic) was used to elicit the subjects' views and perceptions about the student's major problems or feelings regarding their ESL (English as a second language) learning situation. A qualitative analysis of the data revealed that these learners face serious problems in relation to the role of the teacher. Other concerns were centered on the role of textbooks, classroom environment, testing, and motivation.

The role of L1 (first language) in L2 learning has been the subject of considerable research since the beginning of the 19th century. Some language learning theories took the position that L1 has an extremely facilitating role to play in L2 learning process. In his study, Hussein (2013) aimed to investigate and analyze the actual reasons, attitudes, and purposes behind the use of the mother tongue (Arabic) in teaching English as an L2 to Arab students at Jordanian private and government-aided universities. The results obtained showed that almost all the respondents expressed the need for the use of Arabic in the English classroom, because it helps them understand the meaning of new or difficult words, explain complex syntactic rules, and save time.

The study also showed that not allowing students to use their mother tongue will result in prohibiting them to have some opportunities to learn English better. On the other hand, some other theories maintained the position that L1 is the main obstacle to L2 learning. Such theories consider L1 as the major cause of a learner's problems with the new language. This viewpoint was confirmed by Al-Ghazalli's (2013) study, which was concerned with assessing the English translations of implicit negatives as found in Qura'nic ayahs and Arabic literary texts to uncover whether or not the translations of this type of negation are accurately produced. The assessment of the translated texts proved that translation of implicit negatives is difficult to process and convey from Arabic into English due basically to the linguistic differences between both languages. This sometimes has led to translate Arabic implicit negatives into English explicit negatives.

Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) pointed out that some of the errors committed by Arab students learning English as a foreign language are due to Arabic interference. Mahmoud (2000) agreed with the assumption that the L1 plays a pivotal role on L2 learning. According to these linguists, the errors committed in L2 learning which are the result of the differences between L1 and L2 are called transfer or interference errors. What leads to the emergence of the hypothesis of transfer is the observation that previous learning has its own effect on subsequent learning. Transfer is a psycholinguistic process in which L2 learners activate their previous linguistic knowledge to develop and use their interlingua. McLaughlin (1987) defined transfer as either a learning strategy or communication strategy. Transfer may be used as a learning strategy for the purpose of formulating hypotheses about the target language or as a communication strategy for the purpose of testing these hypotheses.

Error in language learning and knowledge of grammar has become one of the most important aspects that indicate development of L2 learners' ILG (inter language) system (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Errors are considered to be the features of the learner's utterances which are in one way or another different from those of the native speakers. They further stated that the learners of a target language are not aware of their errors and thus are unable to correct these errors themselves. The process by which these errors are encountered, computed, and analyzed is called Errors Analysis. Richards (1985, as cited in Tomlinson, 2011) contended that error analysis includes the study and analysis of the errors made by the learners of a second or a foreign language. So this study is important in that it focuses on the analysis of the errors made by the Jordanians learners when they make translation from Arabic into English, because analyzing the errors made by the learners is the best way to show the true proficiency level of target language they are learning and acquiring at a particular point of time. It also helps the L2 researchers to recognize the students' learning problems as well as the factors triggering it. The teachers, on the other hand, can provide their students with appropriate feedback and can use this information to prepare appropriate teaching materials and to design more effective lesson plans, and therefore, it will help educational policy makers to adopt a clear and appropriate policy in teaching English as an L2 at the Jordanian schools. As for the students/language learners themselves, the analysis is inevitable to language learning improvement. That is to say, analyzing these errors which are considered to be systematic in nature is insightful information for L2 teachers, learners, researchers, policy makers, and the classroom teaching practice. Norris and Ortega (2008) argued that error analysis is "used to elicit, observe and record the language (and language related behavior of second language learners) and to enable the resulting evidence in light of explanatory theories of the language acquisition process" (p. 735).

## Statement of the Problem

Learning English in Jordan is still rather problematic and challenging despite the enormous amount of

efforts and money spent to improve the situation. There seems to be a wide consensus among Jordanian educators that the current level of English among public schools graduates is far from satisfactory. Rababah (2002) pointed out that Arab learners face many problems in all the language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

English has become recently compulsory subject from Grade One due to educational reform plans. Officially, public schools' students are supposed to acquire specific aims explicitly stated in the curriculum documents published by the Ministry of Education. For the basic stage level, students are expected to be proficient at a number of skills in English such as writing error free essays, and speaking communicatively in a wide range of situations with a native like competency. This is, however, not realized as suggested by the many studies that clearly criticized the curriculum aims as being very ambitious.

English in Jordan is widely recognized as a foreign language and is learned formally in classrooms where there is little direct exposure to language use in natural communicative situations. Colloquial Jordanian Arabic is the mother tongue used in a variety of local dialects. The only way to acquire English is through formal schooling contexts. Spoken English is not used in the daily lives of people, with the exception of very limited areas in the capital Amman (Rababah, 2002). Learning English starts officially at the age of four starting from KG or Grade One level in all schools in Jordan. It should be noted that previously official teaching of English started at Grade Five to allow for the acquisition of learning Arabic as an L1. Despite this fact, it seems that learners of English keep facing significant problems. This means a total of 12 years of formal tuition of EFL. There are five to six classes a week. The weakness in English has long been a matter of discussion among Jordanian scholars such as Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), and Zughoul (2003). So the researchers believed that the first step in addressing the weakness of school graduates in learning English is to identify the errors made by these learners when trying to write in English, which may be caused by the interference between their native language (Arabic) and L2 (English). Thus, this study aims to answer the following main question: What are the influences of the L1 (Arabic) on structural errors committed by the English language learners of Jordanian students, and its relation to educational policy for learning English as an L2?

## Theoretical Framework

### English Learning Education Policy in Jordan

In education system reform in Jordan, many developments have been taking place. H. M. King Abdullah II and also H. M. Queen Rania, supported innovative projects aiming at bringing Jordanian education to yet a better stance. The key point in the royal vision is centered on empowering the human capital which is widely regarded as Jordan's major investment due to the lack of natural resources. The focus is on the workforce that needs to be revitalized and equipped with effective skills badly needed by the labor market both locally and in the Arab region.

The educational reform has been taking the slogan: Education reform for a knowledge economy. The Ministry of Education is the official body that is implementing and supervising activities of this national ambitious project.

International support has been elicited to this pioneering program and the USA through its aid arm. According to Erickson (2009), the USAID (United States Agency for International Development)-Jordan Schools Project provides schools with ample space that is safe, modern, and supplied with effective teaching resources. The project aims to improve places that support student-centered learning.

During the past two decades or so, Jordan has in fact progressed significantly in its efforts to update its educational situation and modernize its tools. There is a clear official commitment and reform initiatives are being debated in the media. Special attention is being directed to key domains such as developing and upgrading early childhood education and school facilities, and bring technology to the classroom as part of the overall policy targeting curriculum and materials development. In fact, computer and Internet/information technology is widely advocated as the key solution to Jordan's national problems of the economy that is burdened with rising unemployment and unprecedented levels of poverty.

According to Robinson (2011), in 2009, the Queen Rania Teacher Academy and Teachers College of Columbia University formed a new partnership. The partnership is developing and demonstrating a model of high quality professional development that is scalable within Jordan and supports the use of effective instruction in Jordan elementary and secondary schools. Over the last decade, there has been a shift away from the conventional teaching and learning to modes where the Internet now plays a key role. More recently, a World Bank report (2007) on development in the MENA (Middle East and North Africa) considered Jordan one of the top performers in the region in curriculum reform in core subject areas such as Arabic, math, science, and English.

Education is a domain where one can trace the changing status of English. Instructions in Jordan have a long history and unique prestige in the education system. It started in the early 1920s with the foundation of the Emirate of Trans-Jordan. At the time, English was taught in a few schools. There were no specialized teachers, no specific curriculum, nor were there any prescribed textbooks. In contrast, English now has reached the smallest and remotest villages and towns; it is taught by thousands of professionally certified teachers using the state curriculum documents and textbooks. The unique status of English in the education system is particularly evident in the fact that it is the only obligatory foreign language for all school students (Hamdan & Abu-Hatab, 2009).

The status of English in Jordan as manifested in English language documents, policies, and practices has witnessed significant changes over the past decades. The earliest English curriculum documents appeared in 1965, 1969, and 1971; they focused on teaching English in the basic education stage and the secondary stage, respectively. These documents formed the base for the production of two sets of textbooks, one for each stage (Ministry of Education, 1969). Further updates of these documents appeared between 1969 and 2005.

It seems that the dissatisfaction with the level of achievement in English in the 1960s-1970s among Jordanian educators triggered a review of all English language teaching documents, which led to the emergence of the 1984 document. This document specified the functional aspects of language to be taught and learned and adopted an eclectic approach to teaching English. In particular, it highlighted the role of English as a means of interaction between Jordan and the world (Ministry of Education, 1984). Moreover, the document acknowledged the role which English could play in development: "Acknowledge of English by a sizeable sector of the Jordanian community is essential to the economic, educational and technological development of the country" (Ministry of Education, 1984, p. 9).

In fact, Jordan has been responding positively to the calls for change in its educational practices. Since the first conference for educational reform held in 1987, many developments have been taking place. In 1987, an important conference on education reform was held in Amman. The conference recommendations had a positive impact on English teaching in Jordan. Immediately after the conference, the Ministry of Education decided that all school teachers should have a bachelor degree as a minimum. The 1990 curriculum document, which adopted a communicative approach to language teaching, reformulated the general goals of teaching English (Hamdan & Abu-Hatab, 2009).

In 2005, documents reflected growing awareness of the strong link between English and development (Ministry of Education, 2005). Prior to 2001, English instruction at public schools began in the fifth grade while the tradition in private schools has always been to introduce English as early as the first grade, or even KG. The first dramatic change in the status of English in public schools took place in 2001 when the Ministry of Education decided that English language instruction should start in Grade One. This change meant that Jordanian students would receive instruction in English as an L2 for 12, rather than eight years. Thus, English was promoted to a status equal to that of Arabic, the native language of the country. Nevertheless, the students' proficiency in English is far below the desired standards. Students are found to encounter several problems in learning English, especially in the area of syntax. These errors have been found to plague the speech and writing of students learning English as an L2.

The reasons that motivated Jordanians to study English were (in ranked order): to study or work abroad, to secure a decent job in Jordan, to be better informed about international events, and to develop a better understanding and appreciation of "the values and traditions of people from various parts of the world" (World Bank, 2007, p. 104). In a recent study, Al-Khatib (2008) provided a broad review of the foreign and L2 situation in the MENA focusing on three countries: Jordan, Tunisia, and Turkey. With regard to the status of English in Jordan, the sole concern of our study, Al-Khatib (2008) highlighted the significant policy change which took place in 2000, when a new curriculum for the basic education stage was adopted along with the introduction of teaching English as a school subject to grades one to four. This change extended the period of English instruction at school level from eight years to 12 years. Among the problems which face foreign and L2 in the MENA region, Al-Khatib (2008) listed inadequate national education policies, limited financial resources, and problems of recruiting and keeping competent teachers.

According to a major Jordanian linguist, Zughoul (2003), English is "still badly needed in the Arab world for the purposes of communicating with the world, education, acquiring technology, and development at large" (p. 106). To cope with globalization, he urged Jordanian educational authorities to change old traditional methods of language instruction, empower learners to have more self-confidence through learning English, and make changes in the curriculum in response to the needs of the learner and society at large.

**Structural Errors in Learning English**

Sharwood-Smith (1979) stated that there are three eras which can be clearly defined with respect to the attitudes towards the role the L1 plays in L2 learning.

(1) The first era is characterized by the influence of structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology. In this era, transfer from the native language is taken to be a matter of habit. Negative transfer would be predicted in cases of differences between the L1 and the target language. In his study, Eisouh (2011) attempted to determine whether the English negation errors made by the University of Jordan's students were influenced by the Arabic syntactic structures of negative sentences. Results showed the effect of Arabic was significant on do-transformations.

(2) The second era is characterized by a tendency towards cognitivism in psychology and language acquisition. The role that the L1 plays in L2 learning is de-emphasized and language acquisition whether native, second is considered as a creative process which later on has come to be known as a creative construction hypothesis.

(3) The third era is considered as a corrective movement within the cognitive approach to language learning. The role of the native language in theory-building has been revived, and the notions of creativity in learning have been extended to include inter lingual transfer. According to Odlin (1989), in the third era, the

learner is viewed as an active participant in the process of learning, one who decides which elements of the native language are transferable and which are not. Thus, in this era, the notions of learner expectation and the perceived distance between the native language and the target language are introduced as an alternative to the rigid view of equating linguistic differences with learning problems.

Errors, the deviations from the normal language performance of a native speaker, were viewed and researched in different ways. According to the Behaviorist School, languages are learned through imitation and habit formation (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Learners tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture.

The learner carries over the habits of L1 into L2 and that the learner's mother tongue habits prevent him in some ways from acquiring the habits of the L2. Richards and Sampson (1972) found seven factors that influence the learner's use of a foreign language, the most important of which was the language transfer one-third of the deviant sentences could be attributed to language transfer.

On the other hand, the L2 learners' errors were the result of a separate linguistic system which he called "ILG". Thus, errors were not seen as incorrect structures of the L2, but as patterns of the learner's developing ILG of the L2.

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) classified L2 learners errors into four types, though the relative proportion of the four types vary depending on the many linguistic and psychological factors: (1) developmental errors similar to children's errors acquiring their native language; (2) inter lingual errors which reflect structures in the learner's native language; (3) ambiguous errors which could be classified equally well as developmental or inter lingual; and (4) other errors for those that do not fit into any type .

As it is generally accepted that writing in English is a complex process for ESL, it is not surprising that errors in writing are found as an unavoidable part of ESL student writing. Muftah and Galea (2013) analyzed errors on present simple tense among adult Arab English language learners. They focused on the error on the third person singular present tense. The findings suggested that adult Arab English language learners seem to have difficulty mastering the use of the third person singular present tense due to the L1 interference. The most frequent error types produced by the learners are omission, phonological similarity, incorrect suffixation, and substitution.

Thus, the need for grammar instruction is attracting the attention of researchers and teachers of L2 acquisition. Nassaji and Fotos (2004) indicated that current research in L2 learning, however, has led to a reconsideration of the role of grammar in L2 classroom. The research suggested that some types of focus on grammatical forms were necessary if learners were to develop high levels of accuracy in the target language.

Despite the fact that the students have studied certain rules of grammar, some students exhibit remarkable consistency, they commit the same types of errors from one sentence to another, it is obvious that ESL errors result from the word for word translation strategy or thinking in mother tongue language (Qaid & Ramamoorthy, 2011).

**Language Transfer and Interference**

Mother tongue interference is one of the major causes leading to leaner's committing errors. Norris (1987) stated that learning a language is a matter of habit formation. When learner strives to learn a new habit, the old ones will interfere with the new ones. In other words, the term "first language interference" best summarizes this phenomenon. Besides, being able to express fully one's ideas in another language is always a demanding task. Thus, when learners' L2 is not sufficient in expressing themselves, it is likely that they will rely on their L1 to express their ideas. When people do not know how to say something in a foreign

language, one possibility is to use words and structures from their own language and try to make them fit into the foreign language.

To use two languages familiarly and without contaminating one by the other, is very difficult. Various researchers have concentrated on errors, which demonstrate the influence of one's native language to L2 acquisition. Tawalbeh (2013) conducted a study to investigate the influence of colloquial Jordanian Arabic upon the use of negation and the definite article in English. The students were randomly selected from public schools in Jordan. The study concluded that the students committed more transfer errors in their use of English negation and the definite article than other types of errors in the same syntactic areas as a result of the effect of colloquial Jordanian Arabic.

So it is a traditional version of the CAH (contrastive analysis hypothesis) which predicts that elements of a foreign language that are similar to the student's native language will be simple, and those elements that are different will be difficult, and where differences exist, errors would be bidirectional (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

CA (contrastive analysis) or Contrastive Linguistics is considered as a part of applied linguistics whose main final aim is establishing the similarities and differences between the learner's native language and the L2 being learned. It was developed and practiced in the 1950s and 1960s as application of structural linguistics to language teaching. Contrastive Linguistics can be regarded as a branch of comparative linguistics that is concerned with pairs of languages. Accordingly, any pair or group of languages can be subject to a CA. Consequently, CA is seen as an attempt to predict where learners may have difficulties and as a result making mistakes (Zawahreh, 2013).

In the study conducted by Zawahreh (2013). Which aims to vet and spell out the probable problematic differences in meanings between some Arabic adjectives and their possible equivalents in English that may get to the surface when Jordanian students produce a piece of out of context translation of Arabic adjectives into English in ESL Classroom. The results of study showed that the process of finding and choosing the correct right equivalents of Arabic adjectives in English language is difficult and misleading in most cases, because of the probable problematic differences between some Arabic adjectives and their possible equivalents in English, so they should pay their attention to context, parts of speech, and collocations.

CA came on purpose of describing across two languages which can be useful in solving learning problems. Beressa (2003) explained that the L1 is like a scaffold for building up the L2. Consequently, translation is considered a tool to fill the gaps. Making good equivalents and translation is dependent on group of factors: syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, and cultural systems of the two languages.

Zobi (1982) explicated that L1 interference leads to committing different errors by L2 learners. These errors may begin as L2 developmental errors that become reinforced by a similar structure in L1 compatible with the developmental errors. He also provided an account of several characteristics that distinguish transfer errors from developmental ones. Transfer errors have the following characteristics: (1) Interference produces errors that are distinct from developmental; (2) Learners are unable to separate L1 and L2; (3) Learner's errors are due to L1 habits; and (4) Learners depend on L1 as a crutch at a low level of L2 proficiency. On the other hand, developmental errors have the following characteristics: (1) Errors are similar to those made by native speakers; (2) Learners try to construct hypotheses about L2; and (3) Learners use the strategies of simplification, generalization, and reduction of grammatical redundancy. Interference is the result of proactive inhibition where the old habits of learning get in the way of learning new habits.

Mahmoud (2000) explicated that the mother tongue undoubtedly plays a prominent role in learning and using another language especially in foreign language learning situations where learners are infrequently exposed to the target language. Arab learners of English in such situations rely heavily on their interlinguas transfer strategy to solve the problems they encounter when learning English. Larsen and Michael (1991) clarified that the linguistically marked features of the L1 do not tend to transfer but the linguistically unmarked features tend to transfer. The learner's perception of the L1-L2 distance as well as the likelihood of the transferred forms being found in the L2 determine whether or not a learner will transfer forms from L1 to L2. Other researchers in Jordan such as, Al-Naimi (1989) and Miqdadi (1997) have conducted several studies as attempts to investigate the role of Arabic on learning the following syntactic areas: noun-phrases, prepositions, and relative pronouns. Nearly all of them have found that Arabic interference accounts for the most frequent source of errors committed by Arab learners.

In reviewing a study conducted on the inter lingual/syntactic errors committed by Yemeni ESL learners, Diab (1996) stated that most of the syntactic errors committed by ESL Arab learners are attributed to the influence of L1 Arabic linguistic structures. He also stated that Arab learners depend heavily on their mother tongue in L2. He also asserted that "one common syntactic error that students commit as a result of transfer is faulty word-order" (p. 80). Along with this thought, Qaid and Ramamoorthy (2011) analyzed and described features of Arabic interference in paragraph writing by Yemeni University English students. Four levels of Arabic interference, namely, the missing *verb to be*, the missing indefinite articles (a/an), word-order, and subject-verb agreement were analyzed from samples of the students' writing. It was found that the absence of "be" and indefinite articles "a/an" in the Arabic language led the Yemeni students to make errors in using them. The difference between Arabic and English word order leads the learners to make errors and, because of literal translation of Arabic words into English mainly represented features of L1 lexical interference in the students' written English.

Noor (1996) presented a justification for analyzing such syntactic errors to better understand strategies utilized by ESL students when they write in an L2. Noor's study is considered a review of the most frequent syntactic errors made by Arab EFL learners. The important discovery of Noor's study is that the most frequent and common source of error is the influence of the native language in processing English syntactic structures.

Language transfer is considered one of the most problematic phenomena in L2 acquisition. It plays a big role in the learning of another language. It has been defined differently in different theories of L2 acquisition. On the one hand, Behaviorists' view as exemplified in the CAH considered transfer in terms of habit formation. Brown (2007) offered this definition of transfer: Transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the TL (tongue language) and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired. Also he stated that language transfer is also known as cross-linguistic influence, language interference, the role of the mother tongue, native language influence, and language mixing. Transfer will be viewed as the interaction of previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge with the present learning event to facilitate a new language learning task.

According to Mitchell and Myles (2004), the phenomenon of language transfer is also known as a cross-linguistic influence from the L1. This conveys meaning that language transfer is taken as the effect of speakers' or writers' L1 on the perception of his or her L2. Indirectly, the knowledge of their L1 will be used in the L2 or target language as a way to acquire the L2 itself.

Transfer can act as a language facilitator through general similarities between languages that influence language development even in the absence of specific overt similarity. We can say that the two, language acquisition and language transfer, are linked, because language transfer is a process that goes hand in hand with the learning of an L2 since once a person starts learning another language the transfer process begins. Transfer is a process that leads to the incorporation of elements from one language to another.

Finally, the most specific definition is the one that Weinreinch (1953) called interference and defined as having two functions: The first one is when it works as an impediment to the production of the language learning and this by producing incorrect forms; the second one functions as a facilitative tool that helps in the learning of an L2.

## This Study

The contrastive study of Arabic and English can have the affect on the following structures as the most prominent controversial structures between the two languages. As it will be the motive for the following prominent structural errors committed by the Arab learner of English language: (1) nominal and verbal sentence: In Arabic, the verbal sentence is most visible, while in English nominal sentence is most visible, which means that in Arabic the verb ahead of the subject, while in English the subject ahead of the verb; (2) passive voice: In the passive voice sentence in Arabic, the subject is deleted, while in English, this deletion does not occur; (3) conjunction: the conjunction letters in Arabic done by use *and* or any other conjunction character between all words, while in English, conjunction done by use *comma* (,) between the words, and use *and* before the last word; (4) addition to (rank): In Arabic, the added name appears first and then the genitive name, while in English the situation reversed; (5) adjective: In Arabic, adjective following the prescribed, while in English the situation reversed; (6) verb to be: In Arabic, *verb to be* does not exist, while it exists in English; (7) numbers: Order of arranging number and numbered varies between Arabic and English; and (8) assimilation-dissimilation: In Arabic, the verb corresponds to the subject if the subject came at the beginning of the sentence, but if the verb came at the beginning of the sentence, it will be in contrary with subject. In English the verb takes one case, because the sentence begins with the subject.

## Design and Methodology

### Sample of the Study

The sample of the study comprised 266 students. They were selected of high school graduates who are studying in the Balqa Applied University in their first year in the academic year 2013/2014. Researchers have resorted to this method in selection the sample, because: (1) the difficulty of access to high school graduates; and (2) to make sure that the achievement level of the sample in high school was average or higher, which assumes that these students have owned English language skills well after studying it for between 12-14 years. Thus, the selection of the students who entered a state university, where it does not accept students who have grades less than 65% in the high school, achieved the goal.

### Instrument

One test was employed to elicit a reasonable body of data for this study. The test was a translation test. It consisted of 24 sentences written in Standard Arabic where the students were asked to translate these sentences into English.

The test deals with structural errors that can be committed by the learner of English language, and it is

divided to eight areas, three sentences in each area: (1) nominal and verbal sentence (includes items: 1, 2, 3); (2) passive voice (includes items: 4, 5, 6); (3) conjunction (includes items: 7, 8, 9); (4) addition to (rank) (Includes items: 10, 11, 12); (5) adjective (includes items: 13, 14, 15); (6) verb to be (includes items: 16, 17, 18); (7) numbers (includes items: 19, 20, 21); and (8) assimilation-dissimilation (includes items: 22, 23, 24).

To determine the content validity of the test, a first draft is given to a jury of professors specialists in educational administration, Arabic, and English language at Al-balqa Applied University and Yarmouk University. Their recommendation and comments are taken into consideration when producing the final version of the test, prior to its administration. For the purpose of testing the reliability of the test, Cronbach alpha was used. The value of Cronbach alpha test was 0.851, which proved that the tests were reliable and acceptable.

## Findings and Discussion

We assume in our study question that graduates students would commit transfer errors in translation sentences from standard Arabic language to English language as a result of their L1 influence on learning the eight areas of language structures mentioned before. For the purpose of answering this question, Frequencies and percentages were made. Table 1 shows students' responses in the translation test.

Table 1

*Responses of the Students in the Translation Test*

| Sentence number | Number of students | Right answer | | Wrong answer | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Frequencies | Percentage (%) | Frequencies | Percentage (%) |
| 1 | 266 | 182 | 68.43 | 84 | 31.57 |
| 2 | 266 | 174 | 65.41 | 92 | 34.59 |
| 3 | 266 | 178 | 66.91 | 88 | 33.09 |
| 4 | 266 | 96 | 36.09 | 170 | 63.91 |
| 5 | 266 | 100 | 37.59 | 166 | 62.41 |
| 6 | 266 | 58 | 21.80 | 208 | 87.20 |
| 7 | 266 | 126 | 47.36 | 140 | 52.64 |
| 8 | 266 | 98 | 36.84 | 168 | 63.16 |
| 9 | 266 | 152 | 57.14 | 114 | 42.86 |
| 10 | 266 | 76 | 28.57 | 190 | 71.43 |
| 11 | 266 | 106 | 39.84 | 160 | 60.16 |
| 12 | 266 | 70 | 26.31 | 196 | 73.69 |
| 13 | 266 | 144 | 54.13 | 122 | 45.87 |
| 14 | 266 | 110 | 41.35 | 156 | 58.65 |
| 15 | 266 | 150 | 56.39 | 116 | 43.61 |
| 16 | 266 | 74 | 27.81 | 192 | 72.19 |
| 17 | 266 | 84 | 31.57 | 182 | 68.43 |
| 18 | 266 | 86 | 32.33 | 180 | 67.67 |
| 19 | 266 | 186 | 69.92 | 80 | 30.08 |
| 20 | 266 | 204 | 76.69 | 62 | 23.31 |
| 21 | 266 | 152 | 57.14 | 114 | 42.86 |
| 22 | 266 | 144 | 54.13 | 122 | 45.87 |
| 23 | 266 | 154 | 57.89 | 112 | 42.11 |
| 24 | 266 | 130 | 48.87 | 136 | 51.13 |
| Total | 6,384 | 3,034 | 47.52 | 3,350 | 52.48 |

We can note from the results in Table 1 that the percentage of total errors committed by the study sample in all areas exceeds percentage of correct answers, where the percentage of the wrong answers is 52.48%, while the percentage of the correct answers is 47.52%. This means that the percentage of the wrong answers is slightly more than half, which is a high percentage. This percentage reinforces the hypothesis of existence influence of the L1 (Arabic) on the ability of students to learn the English language as an L2, correctly. As the percentage of this errors raises a serious question about the appropriateness of the educational policy to teach English in Jordanian schools, and whether the efforts made by the Ministry of Education in planning to teach English language are sufficient.

It is clear from the results that these efforts are insufficient. This may be due to the fact that planners are dealing with the substance of English as an education subject as other subjects, such as Arabic, mathematics, etc., that do not need to deal with it as an L2 differs from the L1 or any other subject.

Despite the change in the status of English in public schools which took place in 2001 when the Ministry of Education decided that English language instruction should start in Grade One, which meant that Jordanian students would receive instruction in English as an L2 for 12, rather than eight years. And the decisions that have been taken by the Ministry of Education after the conference of education reform in 1987, such as, the teachers in all schools should have a bachelor degree as a minimum, and the curriculum should adopt a communicative approach to language teaching, reformulate the general goals of teaching English (Hamdan & Abu-Hatab, 2009).

Nevertheless, the students' proficiency in English is far below the desired standards. Students are found to encounter several problems in learning English, especially in the area of syntax. These errors might affect the speech and writing of students learning English as an L2.

A major Jordanian linguist, Zughoul (2003) pointed out that to cope with globalization, Jordanian educational authorities must change old traditional methods of English language instruction, empower learners to have more self-confidence through learning English, and make changes in the curriculum in response to the needs of the learner and society at large.

In their study, Al-Haq and Al-Masaeid (2009) indicated the awareness of the respondents of the importance of language planning and to have a well defined language policy toward Arabic and English as a foreign language in Jordan. Respondents also agreed that language planning is done through cooperative efforts. And therefore, language planning is a common duty of multiple institutions, such as language academies, universities, and governmental societies, and even persons, such as linguists, university professors, translators and decision makers. The respondents also viewed that language planning in Jordan involves planning for status, corpus, and teaching and learning of Arabic and English. As well they showed high attitudes towards the suggestion that the political decision in language planning is important in Jordan.

In conclusion, it is clear that the decision-makers on the subject of students learning of the English language did not alert to the possibility of interference between the Arabic as an L1 and English as an L2, and the impact that can be caused by such interference.

Thus, the language plans and educational policies relating to the English education took into account many things, such as curriculum, teacher qualifications, and number of years of studying English language, but did not identify the technical problem in learning English and foremost of which is the influence of the Arabic language on learning the English language, which was clear from the results of this study, as the next part of the discussion will illustrate it in a more.

Table 2

*Frequency of Each Error Type and Its Percentage in the Translation Test*

| Errors types | | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Area number | Area type | | |
| 1 | Nominal and verbal sentence | 264 | 7.88 |
| 2 | Passive voice | 544 | 16.24 |
| 3 | Conjunction | 422 | 12.59 |
| 4 | Addition to | 546 | 16.29 |
| 5 | Adjective | 394 | 11.76 |
| 6 | Verb to be | 554 | 16.54 |
| 7 | Numbers | 256 | 7.64 |
| 8 | Assimilation-Dissimilation | 370 | 11.06 |
| Total errors | | 3,350 | 100 |

From Table 2, it is very clear that the percentage of transfer errors in the use of *verb to be*, the use of *addition to* and the use of *passive voice* were the highest. The percentage of transfer errors in the use of *verb to be* error type was 16.54%, where the percentages of *addition to* error type scored 16.29%, and the use of *passive voice* scored 16.24%. We can note also from the same table that the lower percentage of transfer errors were in the use of the *nominal and verbal sentence* 7.88%, and the use of *numbers* 7.64%. While the percentages of other error types were medium and close rates, the percentage of the use of *conjunction* was 12.59%, the use of *adjective* was 11.76%, and the use of *assimilation- dissimilation* was 11.06%.

The following examples in the eight study areas will illustrate the errors committed by the students during the translation from Arabic to English. The study areas were presented in descending order according to the errors percentage.

**Verb to be (16.54%).** In English, the verb "be" is the most common verb form used in many different ways. It is used as an auxiliary, as a main verb, as a linking verb; it is used to indicate someone's identity, age, and cost; it is used with prepositional phrases, with "to" infinitive, in questions and negative clauses, in continuous tenses. In Arabic, there is no equivalent usage to encompass all of the above-mentioned function. Examples (1)-(3) were taken from students' translation:

Example (1) In Arabic "Al walad hona"/Wrong answer "The boy here"/Right answer "The boy is here".

Example (2) In Arabic "Al ketab jadedon"/Wrong answer "The book new"/Right answer "The book is new".

Example (3) In Arabic "Al maqa'ad sager"/Wrong answer "The disk small"/Right answer "The seat is small".

The above sentences show that there is a direct influence from the L1 (Arabic) during translation to English. The students omit the verb to be, because it does not exist in their L1.

**Addition to (16.29%).** In Arabic the added name appears first and then the genitive name, while in English the situation reversed. Regarding the transfer errors committed in the use of *addition to*, it was found that most of the students' wrong answers which proved to be the result of their L1 influence in using *addition to* took the following form: (added name + genitive name). The following are examples of the students' answers:

Example (4) In Arabic "Ketab al loga jamil"/Wrong answer "Book language beautiful"/Right answer "The language book is beautiful".

Example (5) In Arabic "Moa'lem al tareek jayed"/Wrong answer "Teacher history good"/Right answer "The teacher of history is good".

Example (6) In Arabic "Madrasta al qarya kaberah"/Wrong answer "School the village big"/Right answer "The school of the village is big".

We can readily notice from Examples (4)-(6) of the students' answers that they relied heavily on their L1 structure to translate the equivalent Arabic sentences into English.

**Passive voice (16.24%).** In Arabic, the subject in the passive voice sentence is deleted, and replaced by the object who acts on behalf of the subject. The passive voice comes in the past tense and the present tense and does not come in the order tense; while in English, this deletion does not occur most of the time. The grammatical subject expresses the theme of the main verb—that is, the person or thing that undergoes the action or has its state changed. This contrasts with active voice, in which the subject has the agent role. For example, in the passive sentence "The lesson was written", the subject (the lesson) denotes the theme rather than the agent of the action. In contrast, the sentence "Someone wrote the lesson" is active sentence.

Examples (7)-(9) illustrate the errors committed by students which show the literal translation from Arabic to English:

Examples (7) In Arabic "Koteba al dars"/Wrong answer "Wroten the lesson"/Right answer "The lesson was Written".

Examples (8) In Arabic "O'kela al ta'am"/Wrong answer "Eaten the eat"/Right answer "The food was eaten".

Examples (9) In Arabic "Kotela al a'dow"/Wrong answer "Killed the enemy"/Right answer "The enemy was killed".

**Conjunction (12.59%).** In English grammar, a conjunction (abbreviated CONJ or CNJ) is a part of speech that connects words, sentences, phrases, or clauses. A discourse connective is a conjunction joining sentences. This definition may overlap with that of other parts of speech. In general, a conjunction is an invariable grammatical particle, and it may or may not stand between the items it conjoins.

Coordinating conjunctions, also called coordinators, are conjunctions that join or coordinate, two or more items (such as words, main clauses, or sentences) of equal syntactic importance. In English, the mnemonic acronym FANBOYS can be used to remember the coordinators *for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, and *so*.

In Arabic grammar, coordinating conjunctions join two or more words of equal syntactic importance. The number of these coordinators is nine: *waw (and)*, *fa (then)*, *thoma (then)*, *hata (even)*, *aw (or)*, *am (or)*, *bal (but rather)*, *la (not)*, and *laken (but)*.

In English, the comma used to separate between words, then before the last word any of coordinating conjunctions is used like *and* (e.g., *Ahmad, Salim, Omar, and Adam*); while in Arabic, the coordinating conjunctions like *wow (and)* used to separate between every two words (e.g., *Ahmad wa Salim wa Omar wa Adam*).

Examples (10)-(12) illustrate the errors committed by students which show the literal translation from Arabic to English:

Example (10) In Arabic "Akalto kobzan wa labanan wa lahman wa fakeha"/Wrong answer "I eat the bread and the yogurt and the meat and the fruit"/Right answer "I ate bread, yogurt, meat, and fruit".

Example (11) In Arabic "Sharebto ma'an wa aseran wa shayan wa kahwa"/Wrong answer "I drank the water and juice and tea and coffee"/Right answer "I drank water, juice, tea, and coffee".

Example (12) In Arabic "Zorto al jamea'a wa al maktaba wa al madrasa wa al souq"/Wrong answer "I
visit the university and the library and the school and the market"/Right answer "I visited
the university, library, school, and market".

**Adjective (11.76%).** Unlike in English, adjectives in Arabic language come after the noun they qualify
and should agree with it in gender, number, and sometimes even in definiteness. Examples (13)-(15) are useful:

Example (13) In Arabic "Al bayt al kabeer afdal men al bayt al sageer"/Wrong answer "The home big
biter than the home small"/Right answer "The big house is better than the small one".

Example (14) In Arabic "Amtaleko sayara jameelah"/Wrong answer "Car beauty"/Right answer "I have a
beautiful car".

Example (15) In Arabic "Eshtarayto kalaman azrak"/Wrong answer "Pin blue"/Right answer "I bought a
blue pen".

The above sentences show the word order in the noun phrase, where the order of noun phrase in Arabic
language follows this order: N + adj, but the order of the noun phrase in English is different. The adjective
word must be before the noun, not after. So, the students make many errors in this type, because they have
influenced by their L1.

**Assimilation-Dissimilation (11.06%).** In Arabic, there is assimilation between the verb and the subject if the
subject comes before the verb, and this assimilation changes according to the subject gender. Dissimilation occurs
when the verb comes before the subject, and also this dissimilation changes according to the subject gender.

In English, the verb committed one case (neutral). There is no assimilation or dissimilation between the
verb and the subject, the subject comes before the verb in all cases. Examples (16)-(18) illustrate the errors
committed by students during translation from Arabic to English:

Example (16) In Arabic "Jaa' al awlad"/Wrong answer "Came the boys"/ Right answer "The boys came".

Example (17) In Arabic "Al awlad jaa'wo"/Wrong answer "Came the boys"/Right answer "The boys came".

Example (18) In Arabic "Al banat je'ena"/Wrong answer "Came the girls"/Right answer "The girls came".

**Nominal and verbal sentence (7.88%).** Classical Arabic tends to prefer the word order "verb before
subject" rather than "subject before verb". However, the word order is fairly flexible, since words are tagged by
case endings. The situation in English is different, whereas "subject before verb" is used in all cases. In many
cases, the learners may transfer the Arabic word order during their writing, as illustrated Examples (19)-(21):

Example (19) In Arabic "Jaa' Khaled elah al maktaba"/Wrong answer "Came Khaled to the library"/Right
answer "Khaled came to the library".

Example (20) In Arabic "Kadima Ali elah al souq"/Wrong answer "Came Ali to the market"/Right answer
"Ali came to the market".

Example (21) Kataba al telmith kessa'"/Wrong answer "Wrote student story"/Right answer "The pupil
wrote a story".

It seems that the linguistic structures of the L1 are the main cause of interference when translating to the
L2. Students tend to apply the rules of their L1 when they do not know the rules of the L2.

**Numbers (7.64%).** In the Arabic language, the order of the number and numbered does not take one form
in all numbers, in number one and number two the order of the numbered comes before the number; while in
the rest of the numbers, the order of the numbered can come in two ways, before the number or after it (e.g.,
*ketab wahed*, *ketabayn ethnayn*, *kamsato awlad/or/awlad kamsah*).

In English, the order of the number and numbered takes one form in all numbers, where the numbered

comes after the number in all cases. (e.g., *one book*, *two book*, *five books*). Examples (22)-(24) were taken from students' translation:

Example (22) In Arabic "Eshtarayto kalaman wahedan"/Wrong answer "I bought pen one"/Right answer "I bought a pen/or one pen".

Example (23) In Arabic "Akalto tofahtayn ethnatayn"/Wrong answer "I eat apple two"/Right answer "I ate two apples".

Example (24) In Arabic "Rabehto thalathat jawae'z "/Wrong answer "I win gift three"/Right answer "I won three prizes".

We can notice from the above-mentioned examples of the students' answers that they relied heavily on their L1 structure to translate the equivalent Arabic sentences.

## Implications

In the light of the findings of this study, we suggest that the education policy maker should be aware of the technical problem in learning English which foremost of it is the influence of the Arabic language on learning the English language. And they should quest to find solutions to these problems through cooperative efforts, including language academies, universities, linguists, university professors, translators, and the instructors of English language. In addition, the instructors can motivate the ESL learners to be aware of their errors, how their L1 interferes with their production of the L2, and the differences between their L1 and English. This would sharpen their awareness of the fact that they cannot apply what is in their L1 to the ESL. Consequently, it would help them avoid or at least reduce the amount of their L1 interference on the ESL they are learning. However, ESL instructors should be very careful about the way they do it. It should be done in a way that helps ESL learners develop stronger new learning habits to overcome those existing old learning habits.

The literal translation could be avoided by employing teaching approaches that cater for the different learning preferences. So the way they diagnose and deal with the committed errors should give them an aid to arrive at their pedagogical objectives and they should bear in their minds that their way of tackling these errors must not lay an obstacle on the learners' way of ESL learning.

## Limitations of the Study

This study has the following limitations: (1) Generalizations of the findings are limited to the school graduate students who are studying in Al-balqa Applied University in their first year, so the findings can only be generalized to similar population; (2) Generalizations of the findings are limited to the effect of the L1 on learning the eight linguistic areas—the subject of this study—in the ESL. Other linguistic areas are excluded; and (3) The results of the study are limited to the errors committed by the study sample that is the control of the rules of Arabic language grammars in producing the English sentence when translating from Arabic to English. Other errors as spelling, lexical, and semantic errors are excluded.

## Conclusions

The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of the L1 (Arabic) on learning English as an L2 in Jordanian schools, and its relation to educational policy. It has revealed that the percentage of total errors committed by the study sample in all areas exceeds percentage of correct answers, where the percentage of

the wrong answers is 52.48%, while the percentage of the correct answers is 47.52%. And it is clear that the percentage of transfer errors in the use of *verb to be*, the use of *addition to* and the use of *passive voice* were the highest. These percentages reinforce the hypothesis of existence influence of the L1 (Arabic) on the ability of students to learn the English language as an L2, correctly. As the percentage of these errors raises a serious question about the appropriateness of the educational policy to teach English in Jordanian schools, and whether the efforts made by the Ministry of Education in planning to teach English language are sufficient.

It can be concluded that these errors occurred in the students' responses in all areas of the test as a result of proactive inhibition where the old habits of learning got in the way of learning new habits. In all items, Arabic shares a meaning with English, but expresses it in a different way which resulted in the students transferring their realization device from Arabic into English. And this is because the learners apply the structures of their L1 when they translate to English. The differences in the structures of the two languages cause the problems in translating to the L2.

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# "Gwo" and "Dzy" in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou*[*]

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In this paper, we focus our grammar studies on two early Cantonese literature contexts: *Huajian Ji* (　　, 1714) and *Yue Ou* (　, 1820). Two aspect markers, the experience aspect marker "gwo　" and the duration aspect marker "dzy　", in these two Cantonese books show different characteristics from oral Cantonese today. "Gwo", mostly used as an aspect marker of "experience" and "repeat" in verbal expression, had the usage of "unhappened experience" in the old books as a connection between this two aspects. Every step of "dzy"'s grammarlization process was clearly recorded in the written materials. By comparing with the aspect markers in Mandarin Chinese, the usage of the completion aspect marker "liu　" found in these two books was also discussed. We argue the importance of literature context in diachronical grammar studies of dialect.

*Keywords:* aspect, experience, duration, Cantonese

## Introduction

*Huajian Ji* (　　, 1714) and *Yue Ou* (　　, 1820), which were written in the MING Dynasty and the QING Dynasty separately, are two important literature contexts featured with Cantonese saying and singing. These two books are also important materials for the diachronical studies of Cantonese.

In the diachronical researches of Cantonese, the materials of Bibles, dictionaries, and learning textbooks are always the focus and are widely used. However, since the earliest materials of these kinds are from the 1840s, we have to find other Cantonese materials if we want to know what happened in earlier time. The language used in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou* are the combination of colloquial Cantonese dialect and simple classical Chinese. We can see how people used Cantonese in the MING and QING Dynasties if we can distinguish and analyze the language in them carefully.

The experience and duration are two widely used aspect in Chinese. The marker for these two aspect are "gwo　" and "dzy　" in Cantonese. The usages of these two aspect markers in these two books are studied in this paper. They show different characteristics, and give us some enlightenment on how to utilize literature materials in diachronical grammar researches on Cantonese.

## "Gwo" in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou*

### The Usage of "Gwo" in *Huajian Ji*

There are very few examples of "gwo" in *Huajian Ji*. All found examples are of compound complement of

direction (see Example (1)):

Example (1)                                                                 (XUE, 1985, p. 19)

**The Usage of "Gwo" in *Yue Ou***

"Gwo" in *Yue Ou* has more meanings and more grammar functions:

(1) Complement of direction, attaching to a verb and having a noun of place behind it (see Example (2)):

Example (2)                                                 驚      。(CHEN, 1986, p. 1,                    )

(2) Particle of giving, used before somebody in a giving sentence in Example (3):

Example (3)                                      (CHEN, 1986, p. 3,                    )

(3) Particle of comparing, attaching to an adjective (see Example (4)):

Example (4)                                      (CHEN, 1986, p. 1,                    )

These three meanings and functions of "gwo" show a clear line from a place to a receiving object, and then to a comparing object. They will not be confused, because each function has its fix occurrence condition. Besides these three usages, "gwo" is also an aspect marker, which has two aspect meanings mainly:

(4) Having been experienced (see Example (5)):

Example (5)          咁                        (CHEN, 1986, p. 60,              )

(5) To do it again (see Example (6)):

Example (6)                                      (CHEN, 1986, p. 129,                )

"Gwo" is a typical aspect marker which evolves from space to time. In *Huajian Ji*, the MING Dynasty book, "gwo" shows the usage about "space" only, while in *Yue Ou*, the book two hundred years later from the QING Dynasty, it shows more expressions connected to "time" and "process of action". The time gap indicates that the functions of aspect maybe a new one. Although we are not sure about the time when the aspect usage emerges, it may be sure that at least in the MING Dynasty, people were not willing to use the "gwo" in other place besides "space" in writing.

**From Experience Aspect to Repeat Aspect**

The two main aspect functions found in *Yue Ou* are still used in Cantonese today. However, "experience" and "repeat" seem to have no connection at all. Commonly, we distinguish these two markers through the situation of the sentence it appears. The marker in a sentence of "already happened" must be the type (4), the "experience" one, while the marker in a sentence of "not happen yet" must be the type (5), the "repeat" one. But we cannot use this criterion to test another kind of sentences which also found in *Yue Ou*. We call these sentences type (6). "Gwo" in these sentences means "will experience in the future", which is in an unhappened situation, but has the meaning of experience. Let us see Examples (7)-(8):

Example (7)                                                                 (CHEN, 1986, p. 98,

                            )

Example (8)                                      咁      (CHEN, 1986, p. 90,                )

In Example (7), the writer asked the girl "Qiu xi" to choose someone love her. The girl committed suicide when she was very young and she had never having a lover before, so the "gwo" here could not mean repeat. The whole sentence was a hypothetical one, nothing had been happened, so "gwo" did not mean experience.

The same was in Example (8). The whole singing of this piece tells the thoughts of a girl. She said, it was always the man she loved who wanted to have a fight with her in the early time, and she obeyed him all the time. But this time, she did not want to be like before any more. She would rather to start a fight with that man. So, we see a "not happen yet" situation, but also a "never experience before" one at the same time. It makes the marker "gwo" here cannot be type (4), nor type (5) either.

Let us compare Example (9) and Example (10):

Example (9)                                              咁       (CHEN, 1986, p. 127,       )

Example (10)                                    (CHEN, 1986, p. 143,         )

In Example (9), the "gwo" is an experience marker, but not the same in Example (10), because the action of "think    " had not happened yet here. Example (10) asks someone to think about it later. However, we cannot put it into type (5), because we are not sure whether this "think" action happened before or not.

All these examples indicate that there are another function about "gwo", we can name it "unhappened experience". It presents someone making up his mind to do something in the future, no matter how long it is. The original meaning of "experience" in the marker "gwo" becomes a way to emphasize someone's mind here.

There must be some logic relation between "experience" and "repeat", since they are all important function of one marker "gwo". As we know now, the usage of "unhappened experience" must be the connection of them: experience→unhappened experience/decision→(common action) repeat.

If someone decided to do something, and this action is not a special one, like "soeng/think" or "si/try", it could be viewed as "repeat" of course.

In *Yue Ou*, the marker of "repeat" has an intimate relationship with the adverbial of repeat. They often appear at the same time in one sentence (see Examples (11)-(12)).

Example (11)                                          (CHEN, 1986, p. 13,         )

Example (12)                                    (CHEN, 1986, p. 91,          )

The adverbial of repeat in Chinese along always indicates an unhappened situation, so it not only emphasizes the repeat function of "gwo", but also may be the intriguer of this function. When the repeat adverbial entered a sentence of "unhappened experience", the "unhappened" part was emphasized, and finally made "unhappened" and "repeat" excel "experience". It is in this way that "gwo" becomes a marker of "repeat".

Now, "experience" and "repeat" both have their own occurrence situations:

Experience: happened situation

Repeat: unhappened situation

But "unhappened experience" can only appear in a hypothesis environment, because this kind of situation is a contradiction itself.

## "Dzy" in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou*

### The Usage of "Dzy" in *Huajian Ji*

The durative aspect marker in Mandarin Chinese is "zhe    " mainly, while in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou* there are two particles: "dzy    " and "dzoek    ".

In *Huajian Ji*, there are more examples of "dzy" than those of "dzoek", and the verbs before "dzy" are having less restriction than those before "dzoek".

"Dzoek" does not have any functions of indicating durative aspect. It follows the verbs like "dzong    , run across", "jy    /tsou    , meet" and "dzung    , achieve", indicating "attaching to" or "arriving at", acting as a resultative complement (see Examples (13)-(16)).

Example (13)                                                           (XUE, 1985, p. 23)

Example  (14)                                                                           (XUE, 1985, p. 28)

Example (15)                                               (XUE, 1985, p. 26)

Example (16)                               (XUE, 1985, p. 41)

On the contrary, "dzy" shows a serious evolving function from verb to a more abstract grammar particle:

(1) Make someone stop in Examples (17)-(18):

Example (17)                     (XUE, 1985, p. 17)

Example (18)                     (XUE, 1985, p. 54)

(2) Stablized in Example (19):

Example (19)                         (XUE, 1985, p. 14)

(3) Keeping stable and continuous Examples (20)-(21):

Example (20)                                                 (XUE, 1985, p. 16)

Example (21)                               (XUE, 1985, p. 27)

## The Usage of "Dzy" in *Yue Ou*

The same differences between "dzoek" and "dzy" can also be found in *Yue Ou*.

"Dzoek", also being written as "dzy    " in *Yue Ou*, follows verbs like "fu    , attach", "gin    , see", "wan 搵/tsam    , find", and "jy    /tsou    /pung    , meet". "Dzoek" is a resultative complement, and has nothing to do with durative aspect, just like the usage in *Huajian Ji* (see Exmaples (22) to (25)).

Exmaple (22)                          佢        (CHEN, 1986, p. 84,          )

Exmaple (23)                            佢        (CHEN, 1986, p. 111,              )

Exmaple (24)                               (CHEN, 1986, p. 125,             )

Exmaple (25)                               (CHEN, 1986, p. 71,           )

The usages of "dzy" have the same serious like those of Examples (17) to (21). Among all the functions, the "stabilized" one has the most examples (see Examples (26) to (28)).

Exmaple (26)                               (CHEN, 1986, p. 112,              )

Exmaple (27)                     (CHEN, 1986, p. 107,           )

Exmaple (28)                     (CHEN, 1986, p. 79,              )

There are also many verbs before "dzy" whose meanings are expressing the direction only, and having no actual actions. Like these two: "doey    /hoeng    , face to" (see Exmaples (29)-(30)).

Exmaple (29)                                     (CHEN, 1986, p. 161,           )

Exmaple (30)                     (CHEN, 1986, p. 70,       )

## The Origin of "Dzy" in Cantonese

According to this series of evolving functions, and comparing with the usages of "dzoek", we can be sure that the durative aspect marker of "dzy" in Cantonese has different origin from the "zhe" in Mandarin. "Dzoek"

in Cantonese began with the meaning of "attaching to", developing it through the "space" way, and made it a resultative complement. However, "dzy" began with the meaning of "stop", and got the "time" direction. It is "dzy" that becomes an aspect marker finally.

In these two Cantonese books, "dzoek" and "dzy" were used at the same time, but the usage of "dzoek" had no influence on "dzy". The clear separation showed us that "dzoek" and "dzy" have their own developmental track in Cantonese. The reason that "dzy" in Cantonese would not be confused or be replaced by "dzoek", which the same character in Common Language was used as the durative aspect marker, is mainly because its independent origin—"stop" is quite different from "attaching to". Although there are several examples using "dzoek" as a durative aspect marker in *Yue Ou* (see Exmaples (31)-(32)), the examples are too few to threaten the conclusion we made above.

Exmaple (31)                                    (CHEN, 1986, p. 168,          )

Exmaple (32)                                    (CHEN, 1986, p. 10,          )

## "Liu" in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou*

### The Verb's Grammalization and the Choice of Relative Characters

In this paper, two aspect markers of "gwo" and "dzy" were discussed. They gave us some clues on the verbs' grammalization.

The general developing way of aspect markers always begin with verbs, then complements, and finally aspect markers. No matter how fast they developed or how early they began this process, they all have to go through this way. Since the processes were not happened very long time ago, we can always see every step clearly, especially from the relative written materials. The "gwo" and "dzy" in the Cantonese books are good examples. Like "gwo", mostly used as an aspect marker of "experience" and "repeat" in verbal expression, had the usage of "unhappened experience" in the old books, which could be sure that it was the connection between the two aspects above. And the grammalization steps of "dzy" were all clearly recorded in all books.

The co-existence of the verb's meaning and the different stages of grammar functions of an aspect marker had a positive influence to the writers. When they were writing these stories or lyrics, they would be more confident about their choice of the relative characters. They knew the whole history of the character and they knew they could use it and knew it right. They were so confident that they would not be influenced by the characters used in the Mandarin Chinese when they were writing Cantonese jobs.

### The Usage of "Liu" in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou*

Then let us have a look at another particle "liu      ".

When talking about the aspect system, "guo" and "zhu" have the same value as "le" in Mandarin Chinese. The same balance should be found in the history and in the dialect. However, if we look at the particles in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou*, there was something different about the system.

In Cantonese, the aspect marker of completion is "dzo". This particle can be found in the Cantonese books of the 19th century. But in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou*, we can only see "liu", and there is no "dzo" at all (see Exmaples (33)-(36)).

Exmaple (33)                                    (XUE, 1985, p. 30)

Exmaple (34)                                    (XUE, 1985, p. 23)

Exmaple (35)                          (CHEN, 1986, p. 103,        )

Exmaple (36)                             (CHEN, 1986, p. 122,        )

Comparing with "gwo" and "dzy", the choice of "liu" made us confused—the colloquial system and the written system are not the same (see Table 1).

Table 1

*Relative Characters of Three Aspects in Mandarin and Cantonese*

| Mandarin Chinese | Colloquial Cantonese | Written Cantonese |
|---|---|---|
| le | dzo | liu |
| zhe | dzy | dzy |
| guo | gwo | gwo |

When writing dialect books, the writers had to make a choice between using a dialect character or a common character. If they chose a common character, they always used it in a "xundu" way, which means they would read the common character in the dialect's pronunciation. For example, when they wrote "   ", they read "m", rather than "bat". If a writer chose to use the common characters in a way of "xundu", his books would be regarded as being influenced by the Mandarin Chinese too much, and could not show the real status of the dialect. That is why we sometimes underestimate these kind of dialect books. The use of "liu" in *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou* seemed to be this kind of situation.

**Hypothesis on the usage of "liu" in Written Cantonese**

But things may be not so simple. Why did they use "gwo" and "dzy", and let "dzo" go? Why did they use "liu"? Does this "liu" here tell us something about the aspect system of Cantonese of that time?

There are several hypothesis through this unbalance system we can make.

**"Liu" had a similar pronounciation of "hiu".** There was a completion aspect marker "hiu    " at that time, which might be from "liu", and make the character of "liu" a right choice.

We could find "hiu", another completion aspect marker in some old Contonese, which has the same function as "dzo" (see Exmaple (37)-(38)).

Exmaple (37)     咽

                    (Ball, 1902, p. 3)

Exmaple (38)                    咽        嚡

                係        唥        唪 (*Yueyin Zhinan*, 1910, pp. 3-4)

The usages of "hiu" were much less than "dzo", which indicated that it was in the process of being replaced by "dzo". But it did still exist at that time. "Hiu" must be an older one, which became the reason that the writer like to choose it. Since it was close to "liu" in pronunciation, they could use the character of "liu".

**"Dzo" was an aspect marker without clear history.** We still cannot describe where "dzo" in Cantonese comes from until now. This might be the same problem the writers of *Huajian Ji* and *Yue Ou* faced. From the usages of "gwo" and "dzy", we can see that writers preferred to use those "clear" characters, and preferred to write down all the grammatical function they knew. But "dzo" had no verb meaning, and could not be used as a complement. There was no developing chain. So writers gave "dzo" up.

## Conlusions

As a dialect book, it must have its own choice of the dialect words and the relative characters. How would the writers choose the characters? Would they be completely independent? Would they be influenced by the Mandarin Chinese? These were all interesting linguistic questions. When we studied a dialect book, we had to pay attention to the choice of the characters, because there are some diachronical information in it.

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# Redressive Strategies for FTA in *Oprah Winfrey's Talk Show*

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Redressive strategy plays an important role in talk show. This paper attempts to analyze the application of PP (Politeness Principle) and its redressive strategies in *Oprah Winfrey's Talk Show* from the pragmatic perspective. This paper employs two theories, the PP and its redressive strategies (especially redressive strategies). The analytical data for the present study are collected from *Oprah Winfrey's Talk Show*. In order to understand the PP and its redressive strategies better, this paper will analyze and investigate *Oprah Winfrey's Talk Show* from different perspectives by means of qualitative approach. The purpose of this study is the application of these two theories in the daily talk, and the analysis of how they do FTAs (Face-Threatening Acts). The success of *Oprah Winfrey's Talk Show* lies in her super language skill and her ability of dealing with some problems. In her talk show, Oprah often adopts redressive strategy to save the guest's face and keep a congenial atmosphere. The author hopes that this study can help the audience better enjoy and understand talk show program, and maintain the stable and harmonious relationship in real human interaction. The analytical work in the present paper is just a tiny part of politeness, and it is hoped that further studies can be conducted to make more contributions to politeness.

*Keywords:* positive politeness, negative politeness, FTA (Face-Threatening Act), *Oprah Winfrey's talk show,* redressive strategies, positive face, negative face

## Introduction

Positive politeness is an on record politeness strategy which makes an attempt to take care of positive face. Positive politeness strategy is intended to present an effective way to build solidarity and to show that the other is liked and seen as desirable. Negative politeness strategy concentrates on the hearer's negative face and tries to avoid the imposition on the hearers. It satisfies somebody's need to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded.

## Positive Politeness

Positive politeness means to satisfy speaker or hearer's positive face, to agree with their opinion and establish their solidarity. It is usually seen in groups of friends, or where people in the given social situation know each other fairly well. It usually tries to minimize the distance between them by expressing friendliness and solid interest in the hearer's need to be respected (minimize the FTA (Face-Threatening Act)).

Attend to the hearer: You must be hungry, it's a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?

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Avoid disagreement: A: What is she, small?

                                     B: Yes, yes, she's small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big.

Assume agreement: So when are you coming to see us?

Hedge opinion: You really should sort of try harder.

Example (1)

> Oprah: Wow, in 2007, homosexual acts were illegal in India and punishable by 10 years to life in prison.
> Manvendra: Yeah, yeah.
> Oprah: Is that still the case?
> Manvendra: No, I mean, again, I would say I would thank you for that, that after you called me to the show and the way, the publicity happened internationally. My invitation to other countries, especially to Australia, to Brazil, to Paris that had made India try and realize, no they have to accept the fact that homosexuality is normal.
> Oprah: So they took the law off the book?
> Manvendra: Yes, actually I never expected that this ever happened in my lifetime.
> Oprah: It's amazing.
> Manvendra: Yeah.
> Oprah: High 5 ourselves for that! It was really good. Thank you, prince Manvendra. Thank you. As I promised, I'm gonna come to India.
> Manvendra: You promised and you have to come.
> Oprah: Yeah, save a room for me at the palace.
> Manvendra: Sure, sure. Yeah, yeah. (personal interview, October 24, 2007)

It is the second time that Manvendra came to Oprah's talk show. From the conversation (see Example (1)), we can see the guest won great popularity for homosexuality. It is the guest's feat that he took the law off the book. So, during the conversation, if the host can adopt positive politeness strategy, it will arose the guest's interest to reach the climax of the dialogue. So in the middle, the host said it is amazing to strengthen the atmosphere. At last, Oprah offered a promise that is to come to India and had a joke "save a room for me at the palace" in order to close the relationship. Being interested in a person's jokes and falling into laughter can greatly save one's face because everyone likes to be considered humorous. Enjoying or pretending enjoying superior's jokes can be used as an acceptable strategy to help superiors maintain their face. Positive politeness is approach-based, so the host approaches the guest by means of employing joke and notice.

Example (2)

> Oprah: Fantastic, Whoo-Hoo! Wow! Ok, Escala is Chantal, Leverton, Victotia Lyon, Izzy Johnston and Tasya Hodges, fantastic ladies.
> Escala: Thank you.
> Oprah: So, what was it about all they're so hot, I mean, who, for every mother who has a daughter playing violin show them this tape and they'll want to practice. Yes, what was it, was that it?
> Simon: Well, it is helped. Yeah!
> Oprah: Yeah!
> Simon: I'm not going to lie. You spoke about a second ago when you've got, and these girls super-talented know exactly what they want to do, unique, hard working and different.
> Oprah: Yeah!
> Simon: Yeah. Ur its talent, I love these girls.
> Oprah: I absolutely agree that and that was fantastic.
> Simon: Really good. (personal interview, March 17, 2008)

Escala (previously known as Scala) is an electric string quartet from London, England who rose to fame when they performed on and reached the final of the second series of Britain's *Got Talent* on ITV1 in May 2008. In this conversation (see Example (2)), Oprah is the host, while Simon is the distinguished guest acted as another host directing the programme. They both praise these girls directly. It is one of the positive politeness strategies: complication. Complication can satisfy the guests' positive face. In the conversation, both the host and Simon seek agreement and avoid disagreement to save.

Example (3)

> Oprah: I have to tell you I have so much fun and I love… being able to call you friend, because before we saw like celebrity friends.
> Ellen: Yes.
> Oprah: Celebrity, celebrity like how are you.
> Ellen: I always want to be closer. I love you.
> Oprah: And now, we can be.
> Ellen: Now we can be.
> Oprah: We were very close friends for this whole show.
> Ellen: That's right. That was so much fun. I can't believe it actually happen. I love the cover.
> Oprah: Do you love it?
> Ellen: Yes.
> Oprah: I love it too. (personal interview, November 12, 2009)

Ellen Lee DeGeneres (born on January 26, 1958) is an American Stand-up comedienne, television host, and actress. She hosts the syndicated talk show *The Ellen DeGeneres Show*, and was also a judge on *American Idol* for one year. Both Ellen and Oprah are celebrities as the host. Before this time, they did not have keen affection. During the conversation (see Example (3)), Oprah uses the method of exaggerating interest on to be real friend, but not the previous celebrity friend. The host highlights the interest to be the guest's real friend to save the guest's positive face. The application of exaggerating interest produces a harmonious and favorable atmosphere which can benefit them a lot.

Example (4)

> Oprah: I hear you design, you selling the T-shirt to raise money for new school.
> Tererai: I've designed T-shirt TINOGONA, the T-shirt which means… we can achieve to have education for… we'd love to sell the T-shirt and so we can.
> Oprah: I know, I'm gonna to help you raise money for the school. So I put all the details on the www.oprah.com. Sounds good?
> Tererai: That sounds great.
> Oprah: And I'm going to kick off the sides today buy T-shirt for everybody, the audiences, let's see these girls.
> Tererai: My godness!
> Oprah: So that's 30,070 T-shirts and you're gonna to sell more T-shirt around school. I do know that. And so I want to just tell you that. I've been so moved by your story is, you know, everything I believe in the possibility of human life here on earth and for that reason. I'm gonna to help rebuild school. I've dominated a million and a half dollar s. That's the least I can do for you. (personal interview, May 20, 2011)

Dr. Tererai Trent, a Zimbabwean woman who, in Oprah's words, was "not allowed to have an education," was married at 11, had three children by 18, and whose husband beat her every day. Tererai wrote down her dreams: to move to America and earn a bachelor's and a master's degree, as well as a Ph.D.. She did every one

of those things, and first appeared on Oprah's show in 2009. As Oprah welcomed her back on Friday, she exclaimed, "my favorite! Of all time!" Tererai told Oprah that she wanted to build a school in Zimbabwe, so Oprah  surprised her with $1.5 million to help her out. "We are going to build a school!" Oprah exclaimed (see Example (4)).

## Negative Politeness

A face saving act is more commonly performed via a negative politeness strategy. The speaker or hearer acknowledges or accepts the interlocutor's negative face. The main focus for using this strategy is to assume that you may be imposing on the hearer, and intruding on their space. Therefore, these automatically assume that there might be some social distance or awkwardness in the situation.

Be indirect: I am looking for a comb.

In this situation you are hoping that you will not have to ask directly, so as not to impose and take up the hearer's time. Therefore, by using this indirect strategy, you hope they will offer to go find one for you.

Forgiveness: You must forgive me but…

Minimize imposition: I just want to ask you if I could use your computer?

Pluralize the person responsible: We forgot to tell you that you needed to buy your plane ticket by yesterday.

This takes all responsibility off of only you and onto "we", even if you were the person responsible for telling the hearer when the deadline was to buy the ticket.

Example (5)

> Oprah: Hi, Jane well, wonderful, wonderful, wonderful job.
> Jane: Thank you.
> Simon: How are you nice to meet you?
> Jane: Me too.
> Simon: Very good.
> Oprah: So, I hear you didn't even really want to be a star. Is that true?
> Jane: Yeah, but just one thing I'm pretty sure, when I'm on the stage and I hold the microphone and I sing I feel I'm so real and so special like everybody watch me right now.
> Oprah: Good, so I hear you're also a big fan of American music, who your favorite?
> Jane: Of course Mariah Carey.
> Oprah: Of course. (personal interview, May 18, 2009)

Jane ZHANG also known as ZHANG Liang-ying is a mainland Chinese pop singer. She rose to prominence after her third-place performance in the 2005 season of the super girl contest, a national all-female singing competition. She is particularly known for her signature whistle register. She is the first Chinese girl attending the *Oprah Winfrey's Talk Show*. During the conversation (see Example (5)), the host uses "I hear…" twice. First she asks the guest an unproved question. Because Jane ZHANG has been a super star, the question on whether she wants to be a star or not will be sort of influence on her. Therefore, the host uses "I hear…" indirect language and remove the hearer from the potential of being embarrassed. No matter the answer is affirmative or negation, the host has no responsibility for her words, because it is not her own words but someone's word. The sentence "I hear…" used at the second time functions the same as the first one. While this time a bit different is that the host shows her respect to the guest because her favorite is in the host's country. Here "I hear…" aims to achieve

another effect minimizing the imposition. These two negative politeness strategies adopted in this conversation create intimacy and make the program go smoothly.

Example (6)

> Oprah: Are you happy that you came on the show in 2007?
> Manvendra: Oh. Yeah. Definitely! Who won't be happy?
> Oprah: Really? I was worried about what would happen to you after you went home.
> Manvendra: No, no, no, abosolutely no. I would say even amongst the royal families who initially were homophobic after they watched me on the show. And they realized that. Yeah, there is, something o, some substance to the Prince. Oprah has not called him all the way to Chicago just for nothing. And they know that Oprah is not gay.
> Oprah: Yes, thank you, thank you Indian people.
> Manvendra: so, so that has actually, you know, your invitation has opened gates to a lot of the homophobic society.
> Oprah: So when you were in here in 2007 a gay pride parade in Mumbai would have been unthinkable.
> Manvendra: Yeah. Yeah.
> Oprah: But, I hear that that's now changed. (personal interview, October 24, 2007)

As a member of royal family, Manvendra has been on Oprah's talk one time. At that time, Manvendra talked about her homosexuality which arouses great discussion. Considering that, the host conveys his worry about his later life. In order to save the guest's face and maintain his privacy, the host just says that she worries about her instead of directly asking his later (see Example (6)). Self-determination was hold by the guest. He has freedom to choose answer or not. Thus, the guest's face was saved by using pessimistic words which is a kind of negative politeness strategy.

Example (7)

> Oprah: But it seems like you did a little something, didn't you cut hair or get a hair-color?
> Susan Boyle: I did a bit, yeah, I did a bit, and that was just to tidy myself up like any other female would have done.
> Simon: Good answers.
> Oprah: Tidy yourself up. Is that true I've heard that you really don't want to change the thing? (personal interview, March 17, 2009)

It is the second time Susan Boyle shows herself on this stage. In fact, the host has already found that Susan changed his appearance. However, Oprah employs the words "it seems" and "a bit" to minimize the imposition which saves Susan's face (see Example (7)). By doing so, the host gives Susan room to answer her question but not embarrassing her with direct language. The last sentence also uses "heard" to express the host's idea which refrains both the guest and the host from losing face. As long as the conversation can move on efficiently, the goal of talk show will be achieved.

Example (8)

> Oprah: I'm gonna ask you some embarrassing for me to ask this (…) Are you a virgin?
> Michael: Could you (ask this question?)
> Oprah: I'm just—I just want to know. I want to know.
> Michael: I'm a gentleman. (personal interview, Feburary 10, 1993)

Oprah asks an embarrassing question that encroaches upon Michael's privacy severely. Out of curiosity does Oprah ask such a forbidden question. While this question obviously is a heavy blow on the guest's face. When facing this question, Michael is not happy. Then the guest uses an ellipsis "Could you (ask the question)?"

to express his bad feeling. The dare, on the contrary, causes damage to the hearer's negative face (see Example (8)). Oprah is eager to make herself clear by explaining "I'm just—I just want to know". This sentence shows Oprah's language strategy: be conventionally indirect, minimize the imposition which can mitigate the stalemate, and make the program move on harmoniously.

Example (9)

> Oprah: Were you going through a break-up during this performance?
> Jack: Yeah.
> Oprah: Yeah, I'm not trying to get into your own business, but I heard it that helps…
> Jack: Your performance somehow. Do you always use whatever you have? "I made a pattern of myself on this movie. This is the beginning of that pattern, I was trying to show, and how I was feeling about what is going on in my life. There were days we didn't get along. You know, we had to get along and that brought…
> Oprah: You can't get along as actors or as the characters?
> Jack: We have to get along as characters, we didn't get along as people, you have creaky days, or some stuff like that. And we brought that to the scene with us, you know we brought it in… (personal interview, January 28, 2006)

Jack is a leading role in *Brokeback Mountain* which makes Jack rise to fame overnight. "I'm not… but…" is a typically form to behave politely. In this conversation (see Example (9)), the host uses this sentence achieving two goals: showing her own mastery, and saving the interlocutor's face. Then, Jack uses an ambiguous sentence "there were days we didn't get along" and arouses misunderstanding. So the host Oprah uses a question to interrupt Jack's talk in order to make Jack's utterance more clear and to be convenient to be understood by audience. Put it in this way, the host not just saves the guest's face but draws audiences' attention. The question here assumes the task of deepening the topic.

## Conclusions

Based on the theoretical framework of the PP (Politeness Principle) and its redressive strategies, especially positive politeness and negative politeness, case study and example analysis are discussed in this paper. In *Oprah Winfrey's Talk Show*, both the guest and the host perform FTAs with various strategies, predictable by the variables of experience and risk. The success of the program largely lies on various politeness strategies.

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# The Development of Hip-Hop Dance Culture in China

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Hip-hop dance originated in the Black neighborhood of New York in the 1970s and developed as one of the most popular global youth cultures in an unprecedented fashion. As a global youth culture, it was introduced to mainland China 30 years ago, underwent a series of rises and falls, and gradually transformed into a local scene under the influence of neighboring countries and regions. As hip-hop dance localizes in China, it has incorporated local ingredients such as Chinese traditional culture. Meanwhile, its function such as bodybuilding is also strengthened but the features such as competitiveness are weakened. The localization of hip-hop dance in mainland China reflects the globalization of the youth culture, which is featured by local hybridity, multicultural interactions, and conflicting interdependence with public media and commerce. This trend endows the global youth culture with a richer and more complex style and also shows that youth play an active part in generating the new forms and new styles of youth culture.

*Keywords:* hip-hop dance, youth culture, localization, globalization, China

## Introduction

In the streets of Chinese cities, we can often see teenagers wearing a loose T-shirt and saggy pants jumping, turning around, swinging accompanied by the fast-paced rap music. This casual dynamic and distinctively rhythmic dance popular among the urban youth is called hip-hop. Hip-hop originated in the 1970s in the United States. It is a kind of impromptu dance accompanied by fast-paced music, which is created by the African American youth. From the end of last century, hip-hop, as one of the most popular cultural activities among youth, has swept the world. It has even had a huge impact on Chinese youth and become one of the most important trends in local youth culture. The localization process of hip-hop reflects the globalization trend and characteristics of contemporary youth culture.

## The Origin and Globalization of Hip-Hop Dance Culture

Hip-hop dance was born in the street parties of the urban Black youth of the United States in the 1970s, which is seen as an important part of American hip-hop culture. After World War II, African American youth faced prominent social problems. It was reported that the unemployment rate of Black youth was twice higher than that of the young Whites, and the crime rate was nine times higher than the White (Kitwana, 2002). Bronx in New York was the neighborhood district of lower-class Blacks and Latino immigrants. In order to solve violent clashes among Black young gangs in the Bronx streets at that time, Afrika Bambaataa (1957), born in Bronx,

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organized large block parties, and helped youth vent their emotions and ease stress through music and dance. This street party dance spread throughout New York via various immigrant communities in New York. In late 1970s, there came out more branches of hip-hop dance, and the two prominent ones were the breaking dance in East Coast of the US and punk dance in West Coast. In the late 1980s, a new genre of hip-hop mixing the two genres emerged, which inherited the traditional swing dance of Blacks, and were characterized by left and right body swing and up and down motion, more applicable to various types of music. With the popular American movies and MTVs (movies and music videos) with the element of hip-hop dance, hip-hop dance began to draw nationwide attention and came to be recognized by the mainstream society of America.

Since the 1990s, hip-hop dance has generally evolved into a global youth culture. In 1990, Germany hosted the first Battle of the Year world dance competition, and this event has become the most important hip-hop event in the world. Currently, many countries have set up hip-hop organizations, and held a variety of hip-hop performances and competitions. Hip-hop dance is also very popular in Asia. In Japan, the white-collar youth played hip-hop dance in nightclubs all over Tokyo, relieving the stress of life and work in this metropolitan city; in South Korea, the hot dance troupes spread hip-hop style throughout Asia by means of the "Korean wave". Hip-hop dance has evolved from a cultural event of the American minority youth to a global youth culture, and it has become one of the most favorite dances for young people around the world.

## Localization of Hip-Hop Dance in China

In China, it took 30 years for hip-hop dance to be localized. The process has gone through three stages before it took root in local cities. In the mid 1980s, hip-hop was introduced into China through *Break Dance* (1984) and other American movies, attracted a large number of local young people and brought the first wave. However, the Chinese cultural environment at that time was just opened, and the society had limited acceptance of the foreign culture, so the wave of hip-hop did not last long. The second stage began from mid 1990s. Along with the booming hip-hop culture in neighboring countries such as Japan and South Korea, hip-hop prevailed again among Chinese youth through the "Korean wave" and "Japan wave" prevalent throughout Asia. Entertainment idols and troupes from the two countries attracted a large number of fans for Japan and Korea's hip-top dance in China, and meanwhile, a number of Chinese local hip-hop groups emerged, such as STO Crew and Speed, and Chinese local hip-hop culture began to sprout. The third stage began after 2000, the singing stars and professional hip-hop dance groups in Hong Kong and Taiwan localized the hip-hop music and spread it to the mainland from Hong Kong and Macao, and then the hip-hop dance culture revived and penetrated into every aspect of youth culture and their life. In Chinese major cities, the number of hip-hop competition increased vigorously, and many hip-hop groups sprung up in China, such as HI-BOMB, Kung Fu Family, and Dragon Tongue. The hip-hop dance has even become such a national fitness campaign that the people ranging from the retired elderly to the students have participated in the hip-hop dance. Today, hip-hop dance culture has become an important part of local youth culture.

Of all age groups, students are the one that is most attracted by the hip-hop dance. Hip pop dance has become an important scene on campus. The investigations in some cities in China, such as Beijing and Shijiazhuang, showed that the fans of hip-hop dance are mainly students aged 13-26 (JIN, 2011; XING, 2010). They join hip-hop communities and associations, or participate in school or social hip-hop training courses,

because of the interest in this type of dance. The Chinese students have a lot of similarities to young African Americans. African American youth belong to ethnic minorities and were excluded from the mainstream society in US. Similarly, being neither the social elites nor middle white-collars, Chinese young students are also the minority group outside the traditional mainstream culture, so they are naturally rebellious to the traditional mainstream culture. The unfettered hip-hop dance with reckless expression has become a way for them to resist traditions and keep alienated from mainstream society. However, unlike the urban Black youth in the United States, Chinese young students receive a good education and regard foreign culture, particularly the hip-hop dance as a global fashion. Appreciating the freedom and self-challenge demonstrated in hip-hop, they thus become the main force of hip-hop dance.

Unlike traditional counterparts, hip-hop dancers are not restricted by venues. They reveal their personality and life attitudes through skilled and flexible movements and strong fast beat. It involves strong participation, competitiveness, and performance. As the hip-hop dance spread around the world, it has formed two styles. One is the personalized and competitive Western hip-hop dance popular in America and Europe, and the other is eastern hip-hop dance featured by team performance (HUANG & FU, 2006). Under the influence of these two hip-hop dance cultures and driven by commercial culture, a number of new features of hip-hop dance appeared in the localized Chinese hip-hop dance in terms of the form, the functions, and features.

Firstly, Chinese hip-hop dance is mixed with Chinese culture. Hip-hop dance is featured by participation of dancers. In creating local hip-hop dance, the Chinese youth incorporate local elements into hip-hop. For example, they have incorporated Chinese martial arts into hip-hop dance. Chinese martial arts are the representative of Chinese traditional culture, whose form, content, and method all embody the ideas of ancient Chinese philosophy, aesthetics, and ethics. In its long-term development, it has formed a variety of genres and developed a comprehensive offensive and defensive skill system. The most popular hip-hop dance is breaking dance, which absorbs maneuvers, jumps, leg sweep, and other actions in martial arts, while the Chinese hip-hop dancers have shown the mixture of Chinese martial arts and hip-hop dance in several domestic hip-hop competitions, such as the actions of Drunken Boxing, Mantis Boxing, and Snake Boxing. The new Chinese styled hip-hop dance demonstrates the features of warriors and movement difficulties for dancers and innovates the global hip-hop dance. In addition, other cultural elements of China also appeared in the local hip-hop dance. Chinese folk dance is the collective wisdom of the Chinese ethnic groups, which has strong ceremonial features and a regional flavor. For example, in the 2007 National Hip-hop Champions, several teams incorporated the ethnic elements. "Dreaming about Wa Village", performed by KGS Dance Group from Yunnan, mixed the dance of Wa, a folk dance of the local minority with hip-hop dance and won the Silver Medal. In addition, traditional Chinese musical instruments such as Chinese zither are also used as background music for the localized hip-hop, making Chinese hip-hop show strong Chinese characteristics.

During the localization process in China, hip-hop dance has evolved from a street subculture to youth sport culture. The fitness function of hip-hop has drawn the attention of sports educators. For global youth, the subculture has a symbolic meaning of resistance, and hip-hop dance is the way for African American youth to seek survival in the crisis and realize self-redemption. In China, however, this symbolic resistance has been weakened, in that although the domestic youth culture is different from the mainstream culture, but this difference is relatively mild. Hip-hop dance is no longer seen as a cultural resistance, but a cultural fashion.

The Chinese physical educators discovered that hip-hop dance is similar to sports, which can improve physical coordination and flexibility, and also relieve stress in mind and body through unfettered dance movements, so it was introduced to the campus as a fitness sport rather than cultural activity. In domestic colleges and universities, hip-hop dance has become an elective course. In Shanghai, it is also promoted as campus exercise, which becomes a part of sports culture on campus. In practicing hip-hop dance, young students tend to regard hip-hop dance as a relaxing sport of physical fitness, which differs significantly from foreign hip-hop dance in the clubs of foreign countries.

In hip-hop culture, the competitiveness of hip-hop dance can be found in the battle which also shows new features in China. When hip-hop dance emerged in America, the African American youth took the dance competition in the street as an alternative of fights among young gangs in the harsh environment, so that they could relieve stress and vent their energy, and formed a distinctive culture of dance battle. Generally, this battle proceeds between individuals, surrounded by audience to support both sides. It is the competition and challenge between individuals or the groups, which is called "the alternatives of violence" (Fricke & Ahearn, 2002). American hip-hop dance scholar Pabon (2011) believed that a major feature of hip-hop dance was high fighting spirit. However, the introduction of hip-hop into China mainly relies on the international cultural industry and the promotion of mass media, and the battle culture is developed on the large stage of dance competition. Some commercial companies launched the hip-hop competitions from local to national levels, such as the M-zone Chinese College Students Hip-Hop Competitions launched by China Mobile for the college students, and the National Hip-Hop TV Competition held jointly by Jianlibao Group and China Central TV. And even international hip-hop competitions occur in China, such as the KOD (Keep Dancing) Competition sponsored by professional dance fitness organizations, which has become the grandest competition in Asia. This battle is different from the primitive form of hip-hop battle, namely the competition between individuals. The battle culture revealed on the stage is more of rituals and performances than a dancing battle in street. The sociologist Durkheim (1999) said:

> They (ritualized entertainments) not only use the approaches adopted in the real drama, but also pursue the same goal, to make people forget the real society, and bring people to a world which they can freely imagine and where they can completely relax themselves. From the appearance, these rituals sometimes are simply recreational activities: people attend the ritual and enjoy the pleasure, laughing. (p. 500)

In hip-hop contest, dancers danced the free-style hip-hop in the strong musical rhythm to meet the imagination of the audience, obtaining the cheering and screaming of the audience and completing the ritual of battle. The performability and entertainment of battle transforms the competition between the individuals to a dance ritual.

The form, function, and features of hip-hop have changed, in the transition process from "exotic" youth culture to the local youth culture. Hip-hop mixes the elements of Chinese culture, whose fitness function is enhanced and has become a part of the campus sport culture. The commercial promotion has transformed the free competition spirit in fighting into a dance ritual and entertainment, and the influences of Chinese traditional culture and contemporary environment on hip-hop dance during localization have made it a unique landscape in the diverse contemporary youth cultures in China.

## Globalization of Youth Culture

From localization process and features of hip-hop culture in China, it is observed that globalization of youth culture has become an important trend in the development of contemporary youth culture. With the spread of youth culture around the globe accelerated, more and more popular Western youth cultures, such as hip-hop culture, rock culture, and hippie culture fascinate youth around the world. Some scholars believed that the globalization of culture will lead to cultural homogeneity, but the globalization of hip-hop culture, particular its localization in China, exhibits that globalization of youth culture is more complex than expected. It is featured by local hybridity, multicultural interactions, and conflicting interdependence with media and commerce.

First, globalization of youth culture is featured by hybridity. From the perspective of localization process of hip-hop culture, the global development of youth culture is neither the full absorption of foreign youth culture by local youth, nor the easy adaptation and imitation, but a transformation of global youth culture by local youth on the basis of their local culture. Robertson (1995) believed that globalization of a culture was a global-local process of culture (globalization), including connections and creations of localization. Local creation includes transformation, integration of the form and content of foreign culture, and adaption and addition of local culture under local conditions. This process is a two-way process of globalization and localization. In localization process of hip-hop culture, the Chinese youth carry out transformation of the form of hip-hop culture, adding the Chinese cultural elements, and create Chinese styled hip-hop dance which is different from American or other countries' hip-hop culture. For hip-hop dance culture in other parts of the world, such as South Korea and Japan, hip-hop dance also experienced similar changes. Global youth culture became the heterogeneous youth culture under homogeneous form.

Globalization process of youth culture is also an interactive process of multi-cultures. In globalization process of youth culture, development of youth culture is not a one-way process any longer, but a two-way even multi-directional interaction. Young people throughout China transform the global youth culture to express the desire of local youth, and these local elements of youth culture flow in different countries through international media and cultural industry. These cultural flows thus mix and influence each other, greatly enriching the global youth culture. Hip-hop dance culture is developed from a local Black youth culture to a global youth culture, and young people from different countries participate in the process of its globalization. Hip-hop dance culture in Asia, such as countries of South Korea and Japan are not only influenced by American hip-hop, but also form their local characteristics and styles, and these Asianized hip-hop culture are again exported to other countries and created more diversified forms of hip-hop dance. The multi-directional interaction of hip-hop culture among youth all over the world has made the hip-hop waves clashes, producing more mixed forms and more plentiful content.

The globalization process of youth culture also shows the conflicts with and interdependence on mass media and commerce. On one hand, globalization of youth culture is inseparable from the development and promotion of mass media and commerce. In the context of globalization, culture develops at an unprecedented pace as an important consumer industry. The youth culture has become an indispensable part in cultural industries due to its attractiveness to young consumers, which provides the basis for international movement of youth culture. Meanwhile, the mass media has speeded up the spread of youth culture with its global coverage, shortened the

distance among the subjects of youth culture and enables young people of various countries to participate in building the global youth culture. On the other hand, just as criticized by the Frankfurt school, the entertainment-oriented and sensual trend of culture industry dissolves the depth and rebellion in youth culture, and commercial production limits the self-expression and individualized characteristics of youth culture, and as a result hip-hop culture slowly evolves into a plain commercial culture rather than the rebellious youth culture (LI, 2009). In China, the entertainment function and ritualized feature of commercial hip-hop culture is more significant, which conflicts with the pursuit of free expression of underground hip-hop, and the struggle between the two to win more young people is just the reflection of the conflict between hip-hop and commerce in China. The role of mass media and commerce in the globalization process of youth culture is just like a double-edged sword. The global youth culture not only relies on the spread of mass media and consumer industry to obtain more room for development, but also is restricted by the mass media and commerce. With the global development of youth culture, the complex relationship between the two is still under way.

## Conclusions

From the localization of hip-hop dance in China in the past 30 years, we can see that globalization of youth culture has become an important trend in the development of modern youth culture, and the youth culture is richer and more complex under the influence of globalization. Localization process and features of hip-hop culture in China show that under reformation of local youth, global youth culture is gradually integrated with local cultures and becomes the local youth culture different from the original form and content. In the globalization process of youth culture, the youth in various countries participate widely, interact with each other, and constantly enrich and develop global youth culture. Meanwhile, we also find globalization of youth culture benefits from both mass media and commercial industry but is also subject to the two. The resistance of youth culture is also greatly reduced as youth culture flourishes. Under the influence of globalization, how youth participate and play the role in youth culture will be a decisive factor in development of its content and changes in its style.

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# The Argumentation for Contemporary Peacemaking Efforts According to Jewish Tradition

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Peace is a key concept in the Jewish tradition; it has a long history. It is also an extremely broad concept. The present article takes on the subject of contemporary peace between Israel and her neighbors, addressing the issue from the vantage point of Judaism. While opinions on many issues are divided in Judaism today, all streams within the Jewish tradition uphold the concept of peace. Even so, each stream supports a somewhat different version of this ideal, subject to different limitations or reservations. One of the most serious challenges which Judaism today faces in connection with the State of Israel is the issue of exchanging territories for peace. The goal of the present paper is to show that while most approaches rooted in traditional Judaism have opposed such an exchange, Israel's religious political parties have endorsed it, advancing different arguments in support of their view. The method followed in the present paper is to study the arguments which have been used in support of peace agreements based on return or exchange of land. In light of the arguments put forth in the paper, to be counted among the accomplishments is a greater degree of openness—even on the part of the religious sector in Israel—toward the effort to achieve peace between Israel and her neighbors.

*Keywords:* peace, argumentation, contemporary peacemaking, Jewish tradition

## Introdution

The concept of peace in Judaism is very relevant today. Israel is the single democratic Jewish state among all its neighboring Arab states in the Middle East, and since the declaration of its independence in 1948, Israel has been repeatedly forced to defend its very existence and has consequently been involved in suffered many wars with its neighbors.

Israel aspires to live in a state of peace with all its neighbors, and to sign peace treaties to this end. As a secular sovereignty, state foreign policy should not be influenced by religious motives, and similarly, contemporary conceptions of Judaism should ideally not be influenced by political motives. In practice, however, Israel is a state in which religion and politics are intertwined. Since there is no clear-cut separation of religion and state in Israel, any decision to sign a peace treaty which requires the support of all political parties including the country's religious parties, necessarily requires a preliminary determination of the issues from a religious perspective.

Contemporary Judaism is characterized by challenging questions and numerous disputes concerning peace,

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viewed from various perspectives, such as Jewish law, ethics, practical implications, and international implications. Although the opinions in Judaism are divided, they all believe in the concept of peace.

In the following of the paper, we review the arguments that are presented in support to peace agreements grounded in a return or exchange of territories.

## Arguments Sanctioning an Exchange of Territories for Peace

From a religious perspective, implementing peace between Israel and its Arab neighbors based on an exchange of territories for peace requires not only courage and open-mindedness, but also very persuasive arguments and reasoning that reconcile this formula with the belief system of ordinary religious Jews. Territorial exchange is a radical concept given the widespread opposition of religious Jews to any surrender of territories in exchange for peace.

Nonetheless, the main supporter of this proposal in general is none other than the late Yossef (1989), patron of a religious party that is represented in the Knesset (Israeli Parliament) to date, and considered a major Jewish judicial ruler by the Sephardi sector in Israel (constituting a major sector of Israel's population) and in the Diaspora. He proposed various arguments and explanations for his support of the territories-in-exchange-for-peace formula. Below the author reviewed Yossef's (1989, pp. 11-28) main arguments.

The majority of the public in Israel identifies as "secular" meaning, as having no connection to religion. As a result, this majority of the public also does not see its people as being obligated by religious rulings or imperatives. Even so, a considerable part of society sees itself as "traditional", that is, as willing and ready to treat with respect certain religious values which seem appealing to its members on an individual basis. The "traditional" outlook also implies willingness to obey certain claims or positions out of an attitude of respect and appreciation for tradition. In addition, this attitude may involve recognition of the special status of an outstanding religious leader or example, who has issued some particular religious imperative or instructions. This holds even when the particular religious ruling is opposed to the personal views of some individuals aiming for objectivity. All this contributes to creating the situation in which, should a respected and generally appreciated religious authority, for instance, Yossef in the case we are considering, raise religious arguments for the need to advance peace efforts in exchange for territory, the secular public in its entirety will not permit itself to ignore this fact. And they will find that they have the support of the traditionalists.

For traditional society, the importance of the arguments raised cannot be measured from the point of view of their logical content, or of their ability to convince. The arguments derive their weighty import from the simple fact of having been put forth by an appreciated and authoritative religious figure. Hence, the idea of territories in exchange for peace can be accepted and meet with the approval of a large part of the traditional public simply because of the appreciation and respect accorded to the religious figure in question. All this holds even though, when it comes to personal views held by individuals, different members of the public may oppose the position articulated by the religious leader.

Religious public opinion ascribes even greater importance to these arguments. Religious society in Israel most often resorts to these arguments to deny the possibility of returning territories in exchange for peace. Bringing up arguments in support of the notion of territories in exchange for peace runs counter to the religious notions most commonly met with among the religious population. The religious public's agreeing to these

arguments is bound to result in a shift of consciousness and profound changes in the thinking of many people making up the religious population.

This is to say that, should the general public in the two sectors mentioned—the traditional and the religious—accept these arguments, each in view of the aspects most important to it, and offer general support for the idea of returning territories in exchange for peace, such a development will suffice to advance the attempts to achieve peace in the nearest future.

## Precedence of Values: Settling the Land vs. Preventing Loss of Life

Contemporary Jewish practice is based on the 613 commandments of the *Torah*. Various sages, such as Samlai (*b*Makkot 23b), a third century sage who lived in the Land of Israel, considered this as the absolute number of the *Torah* commandments, yet there is some disagreement regarding the contents. While all the sages concur that the commandment of *pikuach nefesh* (a term referring to that rescuing human life takes precedence over the observance of most commandments), or the saving of human life, takes precedence over all other *Torah* commandments (with the exception of idolatry, incest, and killing, which are forbidden even if complying with these commandments entails the loss of life), it is disputed whether the commandment to settle the Land of Israel is included in the 613 commandments.

In fact, after the exile to Babylonia in 597 BC, the commandment to settle the Land of Israel was not considered a commandment according to Maimonides (Ben Maimon) (1954b), who did not include it in his book of commandments. The commandment was not a custom in his days, because it was applicable when the first Temple existed (Yossef, 1989, pp. 19-21). However, according to Ramban (as cited in Bar Nachman, 1960), a 13th century sage who lived in Spain, the commandment to settle the Land of Israel existed and is based on the verse "… when you have taken it over and are living there…" (Deut., 11: 31).

The issue of whether or not the instruction to settle the Land of Israel is a basic commandment of Judaism has implications for leniency in accepting a relinquishment of such settled lands. Obeying a commandment becomes a complicated issue when the practice of two or more commandments creates a conflict. In such an event, the question of precedence arises. For example, establishing a Jewish settlement constitutes the practice of the commandment to settle the Land of Israel. However, when a settlement is established within a predominantly Arab area, it entails danger to the settlers' lives and therefore, contradicts the *pikuach nefesh* commandment which takes precedent over all other commandments. Both commandments are important, but the question is which takes precedence and for what reason. Until today, the accepted view was that the commandment of settling the Land of Israel should be practiced at all costs. More recently, following Yossef, a change occurred in the religious approach that gave precedence to the commandment to preserve life. In Yossef's (1989, pp. 19, 25) opinion, this commandment took precedence over all the other commandments, including the commandment to settle the Land of Israel.

## Preventing Danger to Human Life

The duty to preserve human life is based on the commandment of *pikuach nefesh* which based on the verse "the man who obeys them will live by them" (Lev., 18: 5) and not "will die by them" (Aharei Mot, 6: 9, 13: 14). For Yossef (1989), the practical implication of this commandment in the contemporary context is this:

> If the refusal to return territories creates danger to human life and an immediate risk of a war instigated by the Arabs (which might otherwise be prevented if such territories are returned), then it is permitted to return territories belonging to the Land of Israel, in order to achieve peace. (p. 16)

That is, it is more important to prevent an immediate risk of war (although this entails the return of lands) than prevent a possible future war. According to the commandment to preserve life, if a war can be averted by returning land, then the land must be returned (Yossef, 1989, p. 21).

The following points further reinforce the preference to relinquish land for peace: (1) The commandment to preserve life also emphasizes the duty of caution—the duty to prevent endangerment to lives. Consequently, if the refusal to return land places settlers' lives at risk, then land should be returned; (2) If the return of land does not endanger Jewish settlement, then the return of land creates no concern (Yossef, 1989, p. 24). The fact is, however, that it is dangerous to travel in today's Judea and Samaria, territories that are expected to be subject to negotiations for return, and these territories are under military rather than civil rule. Travel and residence in these territories clearly pose a risk to human lives (Yossef, 1989, p. 22); and (3) there is no commandment that orders Jews to go to war and endanger themselves to maintain possession of territory (Yossef, 1989, p. 21). Therefore, there is no impediment to returning such territories.

### "Lo Tehanem"—Considerations Involving Other Nations

So far the author has discussed relinquishing land to obey the commandment to preserve life and prevent endangerment of life. Yet it is also argued by Maimonides (Avoah Zarah, 10: 6) that land should not be relinquished, because it seemingly contradicts another commandment, the commandment Lo Tehanem (Deut., 7: 2). The crux of this commandment is that residence of "other nations" in the Land of Israel should be prevented. There are two interpretations that restrict the meaning of the phrase "to other nations". According to one interpretation, this commandment applies to other nations of the past, which no longer exist (Avodah Zarah, 10: 6). The second interpretation limits the application of this commandment to nations which are idol worshippers (Deut., 18: 20). According to both interpretations, Israel's contemporary neighbors do not meet the definition of "other nations" and therefore, this commandment does not apply to Arabs. That is, Lo Tehanem creates no obligation to actively take steps (including a refusal to exchange territories for peace) to prevent the settlement of the land by Arabs. Consequently, relinquishing territory to these nations in exchange for peace does not contradict the Lo Tehanem commandment (Yossef, 1989, pp. 14-15).

Furthermore, another interpretation of the command Lo Tehanem is "show them no mercy" (Yossef, 1989, p. 15). This does imply that they should be killed, but rather, that they should not be given any gifts and their beauty or grace should not be praised, in order to prevent assimilation (*b*Avodah Zarah 20a). This commandment applies exclusively to the seven nations who populated Cana'an when the Israelites entered the country in Moses' time. Today, this commandment does not apply to the nations currently living in this geographic region.

If this interpretation is accepted, then there is no Torah commandment that prevents the settlement of other nations in the Land of Israel. Consequently, there is no impediment to relinquishing land in exchange for peace. In other words, if the commandment Lo Tehanem does not apply to the Land of Israel, and does not apply to the settlement of the Land of Israel by other nations, then there is no impediment to a territorial exchange with the neighboring countries in order to achieve true peace.

## The Command of Conquest

This commandment of conquest was practiced in the era of Joshua and David, when the Israelites lived in Israel. However, although this commandment is sometimes invoked in support of opposition to relinquish territories, this commandment has not been considered a practical commandment or part of the collective moral principles of the Israelites, since the nation's first exile in 586-538 BC.

It is believed that the commandment to conquer the land will again become applicable when the Messiah comes (Yossef, 1989, p. 20). But even if such a commandment existed, it could not be practiced today because of the absence of its underlying conditions (the requirement of ancient symbols of sovereignty, including a king. The king's law requires that a king be anointed once the Israeli nation takes possession of and settles the land (Deut., 17: 14-20), a Sanhedrin (71-member council), be established as the supreme judicial instance for halakhic law, and divination be established using *Urim* and *Thummim* (Ex., 28: 30), sacred implements carried by the High Priest that were used to convey God's answers to questions (Num., 27: 21)).

Furthermore, this commandment also requires that any such conquest of the land be absolute, that is establish Israel's complete, indisputable control. Since Israel does not have complete control over the occupied territories, the settlers cannot be considered as being engaged in this commandment. As a result, the return of settlements cannot be said to be a violation of the commandment to conquer the land (Yossef, 1989, p. 21).

Contemporary application of the commandment to conquer the land is further negated by the sages' interpretation of the verse "that ye stir not up nor awake" (Song of Songs, 2: 7). According to the sages, such as Rav Yehudah (*b*Ketubot 111a) (a Babylonian sage from the third century AD), this verse means that Jews should not initiate any actions that hasten the divine plan, or rush to perform any action that should not be performed in the present (*b*Ketubot 111a). Specifically, this implies that it is prohibited to return to the Land of Israel en masse, or in groups, and that it is prohibited to use force in order to return to the Land of Israel. In other words, any gathering of Jews designed to seize control of areas of the Land of Israel is prohibited, and therefore, no forcible action should be taken to occupy such areas.

## Israel's International Status

In the present, the attitude to peace is motivated by one of the most important considerations in Judaism in the past and present, which is the international dimension, and the attitude of other nations toward Israel. One traditional argument against Jewish immigration and settlement of Israel is the international argument. In other words, global public opinion should be taken into consideration: What the nations of the world will say if all Jews demonstrate a desire to return to the Land of Israel.

According to Jewish sources, "the Jews should not rebel against the nations of the world" (*b*Ketubot 111a). This statement has received numerous interpretations and meanings designed to justify Jews remaining in the Diaspora and refraining from immigrating to Israel, in order to appease other nations and prevent their anger. According to this interpretation, immigration to and settlement in Israel do not justify inciting the anger of other nations, and Jews should not use force or combat to immigrate to or settle in Israel. This view implies that immigration to Israel and Jewish settlement should be performed only when such actions are sanctioned by the international community (Yossef, 1989, p. 22). Until this is possible, Jews should remain in the Diaspora.

Today, such international consent exists with regard to those sections of Israel that the UN decided would be under Israeli sovereignty. The State of Israel was established by a UN resolution in 1947, and the country abides by various international laws, including freedom of religious worship. International support in line with the UN resolution strengthens the religious aspects of the requirement to immigrate to Israel, since to the UN resolution reflects international agreement with partial Israeli sovereignty on the Land of Israel. The nations of the world have no complaints about those territories under Israeli sovereignty, and therefore, there is no religious impediment that prevents Jews from immigrating to those parts of the Land of Israel (because it does not entail evoking the anger of other nations). At the same time, the assumption of international laws weakens the Jewish nation's hold on the Land of Israel from a religious viewpoint, because any international intervention or subjugation to international law implies, from a religious viewpoint, incomplete control over the Land of Israel. Under such conditions of incomplete control, there is no impediment to return territories in exchange for peace (Yossef, 1989, p. 14).

Furthermore, according to Yossef's (1989, p. 21) explanations of the Ramban's writings concerning the commandment to conquer the Land of Israel, there is no obligation to occupy and maintain conquered territories if other nations oppose such action. According to this view, then, there is no impediment to exchanging territories for peace.

## Peace From a Spiritual Viewpoint

One of the most important principles of the Jewish faith is belief in God and the requirement that all Jews should trust in God in all matters in order to be successful. Ostensibly, this also applies to the possession of territories. However, the contrary view holds that a person may place his trust in God only if he first practices all commandments. According to Yossef (1989, p. 17), the occupied territories cannot be held based on the belief that God will help the settlers prevail, because the current generation commits many sins against God and therefore, cannot and should not rely on God to generate their success.

A similar justification for maintaining a hold on territories is the argument that territories should not be returned, because ultimately God will perform a miracle and eliminate the need to relinquish territories. Here also, Yossef (1989, p. 17) argued that it is impossible nowadays to rely on a divine miracle, because the nation's spiritual state of development may be extremely deficient.

## Co-existence as a Practical Necessity in Contemporary Times

According to Yossef (1989, pp. 21-22), contemporary reality dictates that Israel make peace with its neighbors because, in practical terms, it is impossible to expel the current residents of the territories, whatever faith they subscribe to. They are permanent residents of the country, and are protected by the laws of the State. Therefore, peace is the only option, even if it entails the return of territories.

Furthermore, Yossef (1989, p. 22) stated that it is inconceivable to use force to expel the nations living in the territories to other locations outside Israel and resettle Jews there in their stead, even if such resettlement is designed for the purpose of performing the commandments.

To illustrate that there is no impediment from relinquishing territories in exchange for peace, Yossef (1989, p. 15) stated that there are precedents of several 18th century rabbis who sold their homes to Arabs. This implies

that there is no religious impediment to Arab residence in the Land of Israel, and therefore, no prohibition on returning or exchanging territories for peace.

## Conclusions

It seems that the accepted worldview in Judaism has changed and a new attitude toward peace has assumed a significant, even critical place. According to the new attitude, peace is so essential that it is permissible to relinquish areas of Israel to neighboring countries in exchange for real peace and security for both sides (Yossef, 1989, p. 28). Also emerging from Yossef's statements concerning peace and the precedence of peace over settlement, is the fact that Yossef calls to conform to his views by the sheer force of his personal authority as a scholar and judge. He stated that these views summarize what the Jewish nation should naturally practice (Yossef, 1989, pp. 18-19).

In the past, Yossef, the spiritual leader of Israel's leading religious party, Shas, used his authority to instruct his representatives in the Israeli Knesset to vote in favor of the peace treaty with Jordan, which included a transfer of territories in exchange for peace. The peace treaty remains in effect to this very day, and Yossef continues to support peace based on a territorial exchange or surrender.

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